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ABSTRACT

This training manual presents information on the relationship between the educational environment and minority student underachievement. The materials presented are designed to assist teachers in establishing positive student-teacher relationships and to create a challenging and friendly classroom climate. The training package, designed to be used by a principal or other appointed facilitator, provides a framework for a 4-month inservice training period. The first four units contain training sessions designed to provide teachers with background information on teacher expectations. Each unit includes: objectives, activities, instructions and materials for mini-lectures/discussion topics, transparencies, worksheets for small group activities, and participant information sheets. Units 5 through 10 focus on skills development through teacher self-evaluation and peer evaluation. The focus is on practice exercises, teacher self-evaluation procedures and forms, peer observation procedures, and assignments for completion by participating teachers. An extensive bibliography is included. (JD)

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IMPROVING MINORITY STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT:
FOCUS ON THE CLASSROOM

Developed by

Sheryl Denbo*

***Note:** The Mid-Atlantic Equity Center would like to thank Creative Learning, Inc. for permission to adapt materials from their publication, Shaping Teacher Expectations for Minority Girls: A Teacher Training Module. Washington, D.C.: Creative Learning, Inc., 1981.

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OVERVIEW OF TRAINING
AND
SCHEDULE OF ACTIVITIES

Sections	Title	Nature of Activity	Duration
Unit I	Introducing the Issues	Information Dissemination	1 1/2 -- 2 hrs

SUMMARY

- Mini-lecture/Discussion: Teachers Are People Too
- Small Group Exercise: Factors Influencing Perceptions
- Mini-lecture Discussion: How Children Get Labeled

Unit II	Teacher Expectations: A Review of the Research	Information Dissemination	1 -- 1 1/2 hrs

SUMMARY

- Mini-lecture/Discussion: Reviewing the Research on Teacher Expectations
- Videotape and Post-video Discussion

Unit III	Black and Hispanic Students, An Educational Overview: Reviewing Present Conditions	Information Dissemination	1 -- 2 hrs

SUMMARY

- Mini-lecture/Discussion: Reviewing Present Conditions
- Small Group Exercise: Cultural Miscommunication
- Participant Information Sheet: "Teaching Students As They Would Be Taught: The Importance of Cultural Perspective"
- Participant Information Sheet: "Nonverbal Behavior, Race, and The Classroom Teacher"

Sections	Title	Nature of Activity	Duration
Unit IV	Supplemental Activities	Information Dissemination	1 3/4 -- 3 hrs

SUMMARY

- How Do Teachers Communicate Expectations?
- Case Studies
- Positive Action Steps
- Action Planning

Unit V	Identifying Behaviors that Establish a Positive Classroom Climate	Information Dissemination and Skills Development	2 hrs + one week between units

SUMMARY

Climate Variables

- Climate, Teaching and Response Opportunity Variables Definitions
- An Outline of Specific Climate Variables
- Mini-lecture/Discussion: Reviewing the Research on Classroom Climate
- Small Group Activity: Identification of Discouraging and Encouraging Behaviors for Climate Variables
- Assignment: A Self-Evaluation for Climate Variables
- Assignment: Preparation of a Demonstration Lesson to Practice Coding Climate Variables

Section	Title	Nature of Activity	Duration
Unit VI	Establishing a Positive Climate for Selected Students	Skills Development	3 hrs + one month between units

SUMMARY

Climate Variables

- Review Climate, Teaching and Response Opportunity Variables Definitions
- Review Climate Self-Evaluation Assignment
- Mini-lecture/Discussion: The Peer Observation Process
- Practice the Peer Observation Process with Volunteer Participants
- Initiate and Schedule Peer Observations
- Schedule Monthly Debriefing Conferences with Peer Observation Teams

Unit VII	Identifying Behaviors that Provide Academic Support	Information Dissemination and Skills Development	1 1/2 hrs + one week for assignment

SUMMARY

Teaching Variables

- Review Climate, Teaching and Response Opportunity Variables Definitions
- Discuss Peer Observation for Climate Variables
- An Outline of Specific Teaching Variables
- Mini-lecture/Discussion: Reviewing the Research on Teaching Variables
- Participant Information Sheet: "Learning Styles/Teaching Styles: Should They . . . Can They . . . Be Matched?"
- Participant Information Sheet: "Guidelines for Effective Praise"
- Small Group Activity: Identifying Discouraging and Encouraging Behaviors for Teaching Variables
- Assignment: A Self-Evaluation for Teaching Variables
- Assignment: Preparation of a Demonstration Lesson to Practice Coding Teaching Variables

Section	Title	Nature of Activity	Duration
Unit VIII	Providing Academic Support for Selected Students	Skills Development	2 3/4 hrs + one month between units

SUMMARY

Teaching Variables

- o Review Teaching Self-Evaluation Assignment
- o Review Mini-lecture/Discussion on the Peer Observation Process
- o Practice the Peer Observation Process with Volunteer Participants
- o Initiate and Schedule Peer Observations
- o Schedule Monthly Debriefing Conferences with Peer Observation Teams

Unit IX	Identifying Behaviors that Encourage Student Participation	Information Dissemination and Skills Development	1 1/2 hrs + one week between units

SUMMARY

Response Opportunity Variables

- o Review Climate, Teaching and Response Opportunity Variables Definitions
- o Discuss Peer Observation for Teaching Variables
- o An Outline of Specific Response Opportunity Variables
- o Mini-lecture/Discussion: Reviewing the Research on Response Opportunity Variables
- o Small Group Activity: Identifying Discouraging and Encouraging Behaviors for Response Opportunity Variables
- o Assignment: A Self-Evaluation for Response Opportunity Variables
- o Assignment: Presentation of a Demonstration Lesson to Practice Coding Responsibility Variables

Section	Title	Nature of Activity	Duration
Unit X	Providing Response Opportunities to Selected Students	Skills Development	2 hrs

SUMMARY

Response Opportunity Variables

- Review Response Opportunity Self-Evaluation Assignment
- Review Mini-lecture/Discussion on the Peer Evaluation Process
- Practice the Peer Observation Process with Volunteer Participants
- Initiate and Schedule Peer Observations
- Schedule Monthly Debriefing Conferences with Peer Observation Teams

Unit XI Summary and Follow-up

INTRODUCTION

Teacher expectations can become self-fulfilling prophecies. Positive teacher expectations can improve student behavior and increase student achievement. Research also tells us that teachers tend to label black and Hispanic children as low achievers and to adjust their expectations accordingly. This training package is designed to provide teachers with the information and skills they need for demonstrating positive expectations for all students through their behavior.

Targeted to teachers, this training package is designed to be conducted by a principal or other school administrator, a teacher supervisor or a senior teacher. It contains 11 units that should be conducted during a four-month period to allow for both information dissemination and skills development. Each of the 11 units contains unit instructions, transparencies, mini-lecture/discussions, worksheets, information sheets and assignments needed to complete the unit.

Developing new skills and acquiring new behaviors is a slow process. It is therefore strongly recommended that this package be used in its entirety. However, if your goal is limited to information dissemination, Units I, II, III and IV can be used for that purpose. It is recommended that Unit IV pertaining to supplemental activities be used only if Units V-X are omitted.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE FACILITATOR

It is important for the person supervising the training (principal, school administrator, teacher supervisor or senior teacher) to make teachers aware that student achievement is a top school priority and that this staff development program is designed to assist them in communicating high expectations for the performance of all students. It is the job of the facilitator to create an atmosphere that rewards excellence among teachers and, by extension, students. We suggest the following activities to demonstrate that student achievement is a top school priority:

- Review or develop a mission statement that emphasizes the importance of all students achieving to their maximum potential
- With staff members, review and analyze current data on student achievement by race and sex
- Set measurable and attainable goals for increasing student achievement
- Emphasize non-biased evaluation of student progress

Units I, II, III and IV contain four training sessions designed to provide teachers with background information on teacher expectations. Each unit includes: objectives, activities, instructions and materials for achieving the unit's purpose, namely, mini-lectures/discussion topics, transparencies, worksheets for small group activities, and participant information sheets. We also recommend a videotape available on loan from the Maryland State Department of Education and from the Mid-Atlantic Center for Race Equity. Use Unit IV only if you are not going to use Units V-X. Skip Unit IV if you are using Units V-X.

Units V through X focus on skills development through teacher self-evaluation and peer evaluations. These units also include instructions and materials designed to provide additional information and to begin skills training. These units focus on practice exercises, teacher self-evaluation procedures and forms, peer observation procedures and forms, and assignments for participating teachers to complete. All of the teaching behaviors that appear in the research literature on teacher expectations have been clustered into climate variables, teaching variables and response opportunity variables. Teachers are helped in recognizing encouraging and discouraging behaviors in each of these categories and practicing encouraging behaviors through a self-evaluation and peer observation process. Unit XI provides summary and suggested follow-up activities.

For this training program, it is important to note that supervisors/facilitators do not observe teachers. Supervisory observation during the period when teachers are first developing skills can have a negative effect on teacher attitude and behavior. **The supervisor's role is to encourage teachers to identify and practice behaviors that positively affect student performance.**

In summary, the role of the supervisor/facilitator is to:

- Establish goals
- Motivate staff
- Provide resources
- Supervise scheduling and facilitate training
- Monitor progress with targeted students

More specifically, you are asked to:

- Make teachers aware of your expectations of them
    - Refer to "Instructions to the Facilitator"
- Implement a staff development program through provision of information about teacher expectations
    - Refer to Units I, II, III (and IV if not continuing through the other units)

- Initiate and schedule a self-evaluation and peer observation process to assist teachers in improving their skills
  - Refer to Units V-X
- Continue to emphasize the importance of teacher expectations
  - Refer to Unit XI

Facilitators are encouraged to provide participants with copies of the mini-lecture/discussions and bibliographies as well as worksheets and participant information sheets. Participants may wish to review these at their leisure and use them for further reference.

UNIT I: INTRODUCING THE ISSUES

Unit I Instructions 1 1/2 -- 2 hrs

Objectives

- To understand factors that influence the formation of perceptions and expectations
- To identify specific expectations that teachers have for high and low achieving students
- To discuss how student performance affects teacher expectations and how teacher expectations affect student performance

Activities

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion A: Teachers Are People, Too.
   Discussion of how we form our perceptions and how our perceptions affect both our expectations and our behavior (10-15 minutes).

2) Small group exercise (35-50 minutes).

   Directions: Break the group into four smaller groups each with no more than ten participants. Assign each group to one of four sections outlined on Worksheet 1. Have each group appoint a facilitator and a recorder, and brainstorm to come to a consensus about the six factors that influence their perceptions (20-25 minutes). Have each group report its findings to the whole group (15-25 minutes).

   Break (10-15 minutes)

3) Mini-lecture/Discussion B: How Children Get Labeled.
   Discussion of whether low teacher expectations leads to low student performance or low student performance leads to low teacher expectations (10 minutes).

Materials

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion A: Teachers Are People Too
2) Worksheet 1: Factors that Influence Our Perceptions
3) Mini-lecture/Discussion B: How Children Get Labeled

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION A

Teachers Are People Too

No matter how much we like to believe that we make individual judgments based on our own unique tastes, style and intellect, research shows that in fact we base those judgments on values communicated through socially defined symbols. Research tells us, for example, that people who wear glasses are perceived and therefore expected to be more intelligent than people who do not wear glasses; and people who are expensively but conservatively dressed are viewed as more capable than people who are dressed in casual, trendy or inexpensive clothes. Hence we have self-help books that tell us how to dress for success and we are able to engage in what sociologists have labeled "impression management." People make judgments about each other based on socially defined symbols such as how we look, talk and dress. Thus by changing our dress or manner of speech we can manage the impressions people form of us.

In a society that has a tradition of specifically defined roles for minorities and women, many of the judgments we make about each other are pre-defined. We perceive men to be more competent in some areas and women in others. To cite just a few examples: It is expected that men will know more about how to fix a car and women more about how to bake a cake. It is expected that black teenagers will know more about basketball than calculus. These socially defined expectations influence our behavior toward men and women, toward black and white youngsters and children.

Worksheet 1

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE OUR PERCEPTIONS

List 6 factors that influence our perceptions of:

I. People on the street

1. ______________________________

____

2. ______________________________

____

3. ______________________________

____

4. ______________________________

____

5. ______________________________

____

6. ______________________________

____

II. Colleagues

1. ______________________________

____

2. ______________________________

____

3. ______________________________

____

4. ______________________________

____

5. ______________________________

____

6. ______________________________

____

Worksheet 1 (continued)

III. Parents of our students

1. ______________________________
____

2. ______________________________
____

3. ______________________________
____

4. ______________________________
____

5. ______________________________
____

6. ______________________________
____

IV. Our students

1. ______________________________
____

2. ______________________________
____

3. ______________________________
____

4. ______________________________
____

5. ______________________________
____

6. ______________________________
____

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION B

How Children Get Labeled

What would you say if you were told that it was your behavior (as a teacher) that was leading to the low academic performance of some of your students? . . . You would say that was backwards. You would say that as a teacher your behavior is tailored to the individual needs of the student. If you do not, for example, ask higher order questions of an individual student, it is because the student cannot answer that level question. After all, a good teacher must meet the student where he or she is.

It is not necessary to get into an argument about the chicken and the egg: does teacher behavior create low student performance or is teacher behavior a response to low student performance? What should be clear is that it is not an "either/or" but a "both/and" situation. Student performance affects teacher behavior and teacher behavior affects student performance.

Earlier we discussed how society has certain traditionally defined roles. Educational research, with little surprise, confirms that teachers tend to have expectations for their students that follow these traditions. Boys are expected to be better in math, girls, better in writing. Middle-class and white students are expected to be higher achievers than lower class and black and Hispanic students. Thus, while students' performance affects teacher expectations, teacher expectations are also affected by traditional societal stereotypes. As a result, teachers tend to label poor and minority students as low achievers.

Research also tells us that there are teacher behaviors that can have a positive effect on student performance. Together we will outline behaviors that improve student performance and we will provide opportunities to practice them on low achieving students. Thus you will be able to judge for yourself if changing your teaching behavior changes the behavior and performance of your students.

UNIT II: TEACHER EXPECTATIONS: A REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

Unit II Instructions 1 -- 1 1/2 hrs.

Objectives

- To review research on the factors influencing the formation of teacher expectations
- To review research on the effect that teacher expectations have on student performance
- To outline how teacher expectations affect the performance of specific students

Activities

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion C: Reviewing the Research on Teacher Expectations.
   Review of teacher expectations research especially with regard to factors such as achievement, placement, physical attractiveness, gender, language, class, race and ethnicity. Use "Transparency i: Factors Involved in the Formation of Teacher Expectations." (20-35 minutes).

2) Videotape (30 minutes).

3) Post-video discussion (10-25 minutes).
   Use the "Summary of the Videotape" and "Transparency ii: Model for Understanding Factors Influencing Teacher Expectations" to review the concepts covered in this unit. Emphasize the interactive nature of the model as indicated by the arrows going in both directions. Each factor interacts with and influences other factors. Regardless of which factor the teacher identifies as primary, all eventually come into play because of their interrelationship. For example, if the teacher feels that student attitudes are primarily responsible for achievement, these attitudes are not maintained without support from the teacher's attitude, expectations and behavior.

Materials

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion C: Reviewing the Research on Teacher Expectations

2) Transparency i: Factors Involved in the Formation of Teacher Expectations

3) Videotape -- We highly recommend a videotape entitled "Interaction: Human Concerns in the School, 29: Understanding the Expectation Effect" that can be borrowed from the Maryland State Department of Education, Director of Instructional Television at (301) 337-4215. The videotape can also be borrowed from the Mid-Atlantic Equity Center at (202) 885-8517.

4) Summary of Videotape

5) Transparency ii: Model for Understanding Factors Influencing Teacher Expectations

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION C

Reviewing the Research on Teacher Expectations

Virtually every major research study on teacher effectiveness has identified high expectations as one of the correlates associated with student achievement. Expectations can become self-fulfilling prophecies. Teacher expectations have been defined by Brophy and Good (1984) as inferences that teachers make about the future academic achievement of students. When teachers were told, for example, that randomly selected students were high achievers, and that these students had been identified as "intellectual bloomers" who were expected to make high academic grades, teacher behavior varied enough to have a significantly positive effect on student performance, both in the classroom and on I.Q. tests (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968). Good (1981) cites the following ways teachers vary behavior toward those students perceived as low achievers:

- providing general, often insincere praise
- providing them with less feedback
- demanding less effort from them
- interrupting them more often
- seating them farther away from the teacher
- paying less attention to them
- calling on them less often
- waiting less time for them to respond to questions
- criticizing them more often
- smiling at them less

Students tend to adjust their behavior to teacher expectations. Once a student is labeled as a low achiever, accurately or not, teachers tend to expect less and demand less from him. The student, in turn, will tend to perform only to the level that is demanded by the teacher. This is a self-fulfilling prophecy that is frequently referred to as the "Pygmalion Effect." That is, we tend to label students as high or low achievers, develop expectations based on those labels, communicate those expectations to students through our behaviors, and students respond by working only to the level that is expected of them. The important question to ask is not whether teachers are treating students differently but whether teachers' behaviors toward students are based on informed educational judgment about the individual student or are the behaviors the result of biases based on such factors as race, sex, cleanliness, socioeconomic class, appearance or quality of English.

Research indicates that teachers form expectations for a variety of reasons (use Transparency i). These include:

Achievement

There are studies to support the thesis that teachers in fact base their expectations on student achievement. Williams (1976), in a study of Canadian teachers, found that generally they appear to base their expectations on the achievement of students. According to O'Connell, Dusek, and Wheeler (1974), expectancies are based on criteria relevant to academic performance. Murray, Herling and Staebler (1973) felt that teachers were influenced by a student's initial performance. Nonetheless, there is much evidence that with minority students, teacher expectations tend to be based upon teachers' preconceived notions of the performance of students in a particular minority group rather than on the actual performance of the individual student (Williams and Muehl, 1978). Black children, in one study for example, tended to receive lower grades than white children for identical academic performance (Crowl, 1971). Rubovits and

Maehr (1973) report that black children labeled as gifted were the most criticized, and least praised, and they were given the least attention.

Placement

Placement of students in special education programs or in lower achievement groups has long been a contributor to the formation of low expectations for students. Rist (1970), in an often-cited study, attacks classroom grouping and calls it a caste system. A Children's Defense Fund (1985) report stated that ". . . a black child is three times more likely than a white child to be placed in a class for the educable mentally retarded and is only one-third as likely to be admitted to a class for the gifted and talented" In reviewing the literature, Fair (1980) finds, "The placement of minority group children in special education programs further influences the expectations of teachers who may already have negative attitudes about the intellectual potential of minority group children."

Physical Attractiveness

Physical attractiveness is a characteristic that appears to be important especially during initial teacher-student interactions (Adams and Cohen, 1974). Findings from a study of fifth grade teachers revealed that a child's attractiveness was significantly associated with the teacher's expectations concerning the child's intelligence, his/her parents' interest in education, likelihood of future success, and popularity with peers (Clifford and Walster, 1973). The impact of attractiveness as a biasing effect, according to DeMeis and Turner (1978), is strongest for white children.

Gender

Sex or gender is an important variable that determines the expectations teachers have for students. "Of all the variables that can be used to divide people into groups, sex is probably the most fundamental and pervasive" (Brophy and Good, 1974). Mason (1973) concludes that the expectations teachers hold for pupils are very complex and are based on a combination of student characteristics. The interaction of sex, race, attractiveness, and perceived intelligence is a powerful set of characteristics influencing expectations. Sadker, Thomas and Sadker (1982) cite research which demonstrates that sex bias in the classroom is alive and well in teachers' verbal evaluations, discipline and attention patterns. Teachers, they found, are more likely to engage in extensive conversations with male students and to give them detailed instructions on how to complete a task. However, Dusek and Joseph (1983), in a meta-analysis of 77 studies, found that student gender was not related to teacher expectations.

Language

Language, too, is a conveyor of expectations. " . . . Teaching candidates expect learners who speak standard English to perform better academically than learners who use non-standard English" (Smith and Denton, 1980). In rural Hawaii, teachers' evaluations and expectations for speakers of non-standard English are consistently lower than for speakers of standard English (Choy and Dodd, 1976). Bikson (1974) found that even when the speech performance of black and Chicano students was equal to or better than that of white students, teachers heard them as inferior. Williams, Whitehead and Miller (1972) concluded that "given the relationship between language attitudes and teacher expectancy, there is the suggestion that with the study of language variations in children, particularly minority group children, attitudinal correlates be introduced into the curricula of teacher training to prevent language attitudes from serving as false prophecies, or worse yet, becoming themselves self-fulfilled prophecies. . . "

Class

Socioeconomic status (SES) is another factor contributing to teacher attitudes about students. Cooper, Baron and Lowe (1975) hold that "expectations about a student's academic performance are influenced by that student's race and social class." According to Friend and Wood (1973), both social class and race are perceived by adults as important factors in the formation of children's self-concepts. Yee (1968) contends that teacher attitudes are negative for lower class students and Mazer (1971) reports that teacher ratings of students are influenced by status designations but not by racial differences. Some examples of status designations include "disadvantaged" or "deprived" which denote a student perceived as "linguistically inept, undependable, unkempt, inattentive, unmotivated, and uncooperative." In summarizing a review of the literature, Gollub and Sloan (1978) state, "The racial and socioeconomic bases for teacher expectations are important reasons schools in America are not making an impact on students independent of their background and general social context."

Race and Ethnicity

Race and ethnicity appear to influence teacher judgments at all levels within the education system. Among college faculty, Williams and Muehl (1978) report that "in an integrated class, the instructors frequently will rate students on the basis of skin color rather than class performance." Weinberg (1977) reports on Parsons' research study which found that teachers ignore Mexican-American children in favor of their white peers. Teachers praise and encourage white students, respond more positively, accept their contributions more often, ask more questions and pay more attention to them than to Mexican-American students. Weinberg concluded that the low academic achievement of Chicano students may be attributed in large part to teachers' behavior toward them. Woodworth and Salzer (1971) found that elementary school teachers indicated preference for material presented by a white child over the same material presented by a black child, showing that they held negative achievement expectations for the black child.

Consider the following research:

- Sixty-two white teachers were asked to evaluate taped oral responses containing identically worded answers spoken by white and black ninth-grade boys. Teachers assigned significantly higher evaluations to recorded answers by white than by black males and when black males gave objectively superior answers, their responses were not given higher evaluations than even the poorer answers by white males (Crowl, 1971).

- Good and Brophy (1971a) examined teacher interaction with children perceived as high and low achievers in four first grade classrooms. Children perceived as low achievers received fewer reading turns in reading groups, fewer opportunities to answer open or direct questions and fewer opportunities to make recitations; they were also less apt to call out answers. Children perceived by the teacher as high achievers received more praise and less criticism than children perceived as low achievers. Even when children perceived as low achievers gave the right answer, they were less likely to be praised than children perceived as high achievers who had answered correctly. When children perceived as high achievers experienced difficulty, the teacher repeated or rephrased the question or gave a clue 67% of the time. They gave the answer or allowed another child to answer 33% of the time. For the children perceived as low achievers, the teacher provided help only 38% of the time and terminated the response opportunity 62% of the time.

- Antonopolis (1972) found clear differences in both teacher expectations and behavior ratings toward white, black, and Spanish-surnamed children. Teachers had higher expectations for white pupils and white students' behavior was also evaluated more positively than either black or Spanish-surnamed children. These differences held for both boys and girls.

- In a study of student teachers interacting with a sample of 264 black and white seventh and eighth graders, it was found that black youngsters were given less attention, ignored more, praised less, and criticized more than their white counterparts. Black youngsters labeled as "gifted" were the most criticized and least praised; they were given the least attention. Further, this study found that teachers higher in dogmatism differentiated more in their treatment of blacks and whites (Rubovits and Maehr, 1973).

- Studies by Forehand, Ragosta and Rock (1976) suggest that positive teacher racial attitudes are associated with enhanced minority achievement. This research is consistent with the "Pygmalion Effect" identified by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) and replicated in a large number of studies. Results indicate that higher teacher expectations result in better student performance.

- Jean Harber's (1979) study focused on one of the suggested causes of the poor academic performance evident among many black, lower socioeconomic status children, namely teachers' attitudes toward Black English. There is considerable empirical evidence to suggest that speakers of Black English are evaluated by their teachers as inferior to speakers of standard English. Since research indicates that teacher expectations influence children's achievement, the opinions teachers form on the basis of children's non-standard speech patterns may be, in part, responsible for the poor academic achievement evident among many black children in our schools.

- Cooper, et al. (1979) outline a model process through which teacher expectations may sustain student performance by proposing that teachers more frequently use negative feedback for low achieving students as a mechanism for interaction control, while high achieving students more frequently receive positive feedback. These differences lead to a belief on the part of high achievers that effort will influence academic outcomes, but does not necessarily create such a belief on the part of low achievers. As with other forms of learned helplessness, these differences may lead to less persistence and more failure on the part of low achievers than high achievers, thus sustaining poor performance.

- Barnes (1979) reviews the results of a study which examined verbal classroom interaction between white teachers and their black and white students. On most measures teachers did not differentiate their behavior between blacks and whites; differences which did occur, however, indicate that white teachers have lower expectations for black students.

- Marshall (1980) examined the relationship between classroom characteristics and student perceptions of differential teacher treatment in elementary classrooms. This study found that teachers gave more negative feedback, direction, orientation to work, and rules to low than to high achievers; and teachers showed greater expectations, and presented more opportunities and choices for high achievers. Teachers varied in the amount of perceived differential treatment shown with both high and low achievers. They also varied in both the actual amount and direction of supportive help given to high and low achievers.

- Comparing black and white teachers' attributions of positive and negative characteristics to black and white students, Valora Washington (1982) found that girls, especially white girls, were perceived more positively than boys, and that both black and white teachers perceive black students more negatively than they perceive white students.

- Jerome Dusek and Gail Joseph (1983) found that student attractiveness, conduct, cumulative folder information, race, and social class were related to teacher expectancies.

- Catherine Emihouvich (1983) suggests that teachers have different perceptions and expectations of black and white children who misbehave. She argues that the referral of "problem" black children to counseling and special classes often occurs as a response to administrative and community tensions over desegregation rather than as an accurate response to the need of the black child.

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FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE FORMATION OF TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

TEACHERS FORM EXPECTATIONS ON THE BASIS OF:

- ACHIEVEMENT
- PLACEMENT
- PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS
- SEX
- LANGUAGE
- SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS
- RACE/ETHNICITY

Summary of the Videotape

("Interaction: Human Concerns in the School,
29: Understanding the Expectation Effect")

Items that should be summarized from the videotape: (Transparency ii — Model for Understanding Teacher Expectations)

- Importance of teacher expectations: they can become self-fulfilling prophecies.
- Teachers act differently with students who are labeled high or low achievers.
- Black and Hispanic students tend to be labeled low achievers.
- There are many behaviors teachers use to communicate their expectations.

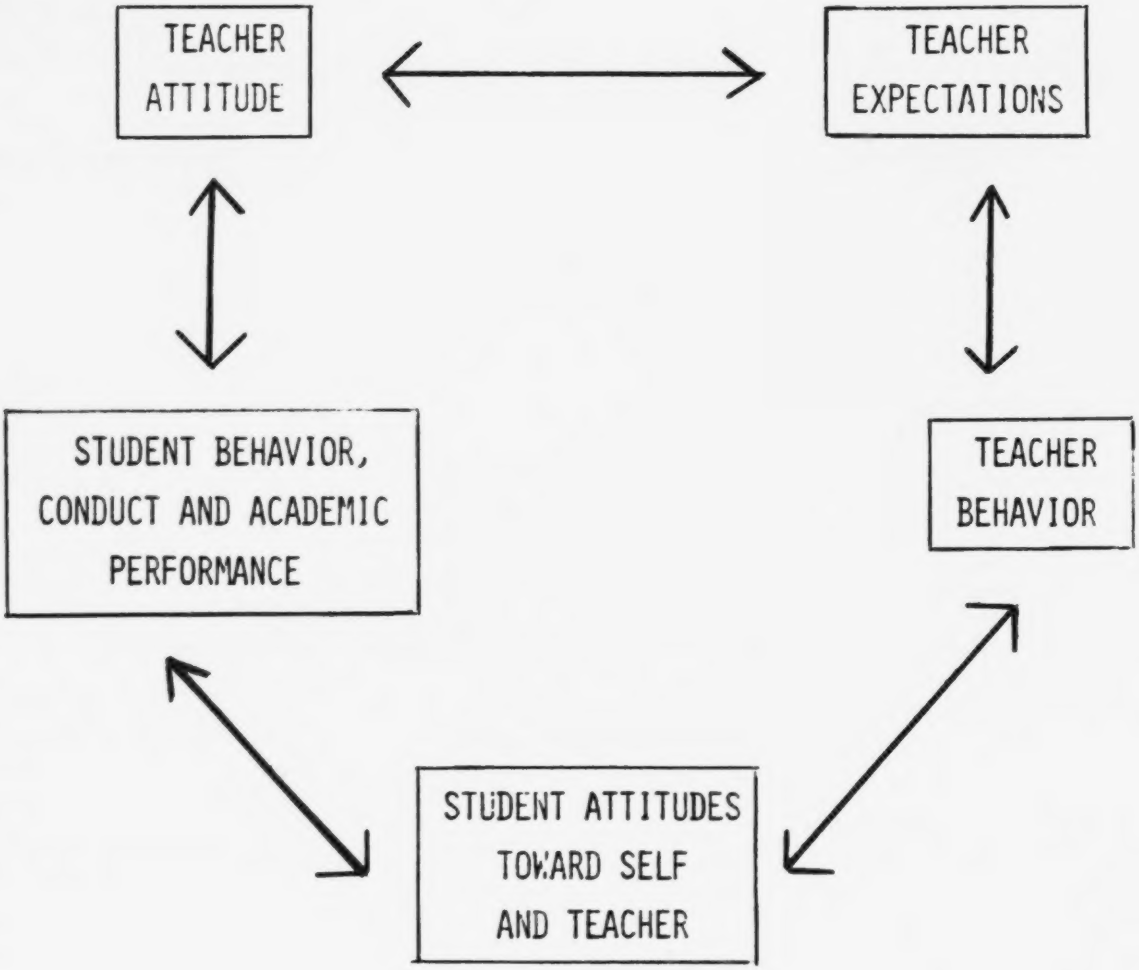
Ask the group: Which behaviors were highlighted in the videotape?

Answers:

- wait time
- dead cats (unsubstantiated praise)
- calling on students

Transparency ii

MODEL FOR UNDERSTANDING FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS



TEACHER ATTITUDE

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

STUDENT BEHAVIOR, CONDUCT AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

TEACHER BEHAVIOR

STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF AND TEACHER

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS RESEARCH HELPS US TO UNDERSTAND THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THE AFFECTIVE AND THE COGNITIVE DOMAINS OF LEARNING.

UNIT III: BLACK AND HISPANIC STUDENTS, AN EDUCATIONAL OVERVIEW: REVIEWING PRESENT CONDITIONS

Unit III Instructions 1 -- 2 hrs

Objective

- To understand the factors that are related to black and Hispanic student participation and performance in education

Activities

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion D: Reviewing Present Conditions (see Notes and Instructions to Presenter, p. 35) (20-50 minutes).

2) Cultural Miscommunication -- Worksheet 2.

   Directions: Break the group into several groups of five or six participants. Have each group appoint a facilitator and a recorder and discuss how the characteristics listed affect teacher-student interaction for each of the groups presented (30 minutes).

3) Assignment: Read Participant Information Sheets IA and IB.

4) Evaluation of Training for Units I-III. Have the participants evaluate the training thus far.

Materials

1) Mini-lecture/Discussion D: Reviewing Present Conditions

2) Worksheet 2: Cultural Miscommunication

3) Participant Information Sheet IA: "Teaching Students as They Would Be Taught: The Importance of Cultural Perspective"

   Participant Information Sheet IB: "Nonverbal Behavior, Race, and the Classroom Teacher"

4) Training Evaluation: Units I-III -- Introducing the Issues

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION D

Reviewing Present Conditions

The organization of our economic and educational institutions is perpetuating the continued marginal participation and underachievement of minority students in educational programs at every level. Consider the following information*:

Segregation and Resegregation

Who Ends Up . . .	
in Academic High Schools	In 1980, 40% of white students attended academic high schools compared to 33% of black students and 27% of Hispanic students.
in Vocational High Schools	In 1980, 31% of black students attended vocational schools as compared to 23% of white students.
in Special Education Programs	In 1984, in one suburban Washington, D.C. school system, while blacks accounted for only 14% of the student population, they represented 24% of the special education population and 27% of those described as learning disabled.
in Gifted and Talented Programs	Black and Hispanic students are severely underrepresented in gifted and talented programs and honors courses. Twenty-four and one-tenth percent of the public school population in 1980 was black and Hispanic; only 13.8% of those participating in gifted and talented programs were black and Hispanic (Elementary and Secondary Civil Rights Survey, 1980).
Resegregation	In 1968, almost 80% of Southern black students attended schools in which 90% of the students were black or Hispanic. By 1976, just 8 years later, the 80% figure had fallen to 22%. Then, a turnaround began in some areas. Of Mississippi's black students, for example, that figure had risen from 30% to 33%. Increases also occurred in North Carolina, Alabama, Georgia and South Carolina (Gest, Lanier and Benham, 1984).

*Adapted and expanded from Fact Sheets on Institutional Racism, November 1984 compiled by the Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc., New York, N.Y. Contact the Council at 1841 Broadway, New York, NY 10023, (212) 757-5339, for additional resources and information.

Resegregation (continued)

In 1984, a third of the nation's black students attend school with minority enrollments of 90% or more. More than 400 of the nation's nearly 16,000 school districts remain under desegregation orders.

Undergraduate Education

The number of black undergraduates peaked in 1978 at 10.4% and has declined ever since. In 1982, the last year for which the National Center for Education Statistics has data, blacks constituted 9.8% of undergraduate enrollment. At the University of Connecticut, blacks accounted for 3.2% of enrollment in 1977. Today their representation is down to 2.9%. Black representation declined from 11% in 1979 to 9.9% in 1984 at Rutgers, New Jersey. At Harvard the freshman class was 8.7% black in 1979, but by fall 1984 it was about 6.3% (New York Times, 6/10/84).

In 1981, 4.1% of all Bachelor's degrees in physical sciences, mathematical sciences, computer sciences, life sciences and engineering went to blacks (Crowley, et al., 1984).

Graduate Education

Information compiled by the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy and Howard University shows that while the total number of graduate students fell from 1980 to 1982, black enrollment plummeted 15% as against an 8.4% drop in white enrollment (New York Times, 6/10/84). For example, the University of Michigan had 719 black graduate and professional students in 1979. In 1984 it had only 531.

The proportion of black students in law school increased in the last 10 years from 4.7% to 4.9% (New York Times, 6/10/84).

The percentage of blacks in Harvard's MBA program has fallen from a peak of 10% in the early 1970's to under 4% in 1980 (Project Equality's Metropolitan N.Y., Fall/Winter 1983/84).

Inadequate Secondary School Preparation and Inadequate Support

Deans of medical schools in N.Y. State have given the following reasons for the drop in minority student enrollment: "The number of qualified minorities applying to medical school is declining both in New York State and nation-wide. Many minority students are poorly prepared in the sciences in both high school and college, and fail to receive appropriate counseling for health-professional careers. For those who show promise, the necessary educational, social and financial support systems are not widely available" (New York Times, March, 1984).

Educational Practices That Contribute to Resegregation

Inappropriate Testing

It is estimated that more than fifty million American children take at least three standardized tests a year. Of these, an estimated 10%, or some five million children, are subjected to tests that are culturally inappropriate, the results of which can significantly affect their future educational and career opportunities (Bosma, 1973; Goslin, 1967).

A National Education Association study (1980) found that the majority of schools used scores from group standardized achievement tests (which are culturally inappropriate for approximately 5 million students) for diagnosing individual student learning needs (87%) and evaluating the curriculum (75%). A significant number use the scores for tracking or grouping students (43%).

Rigid Ability Grouping

In an extensive review of the literature, Gurin and Morrison (1980) found that every study on ability grouping underscored the important negative effect of ability grouping on teacher expectations of student performance.

The evidence indicates that rigid ability grouping and tracking tend to segregate by race with black, Hispanic and foreign-born students overrepresented in lower levels and in vocational and general tracks (Harnischfeger and Wiley, 1980).

Larkins and Oldham. (1976) point out that rigid ability grouping and tracking not only resegregate students while they are in their tracked classes, but that they affect students' schedules for all other classes. This leads to resegregation in classes not consciously tracked.

Access to Mathematics and Science in High Schools

A substantially larger percentage of white than black high school seniors are enrolled in academic programs (Crowley, et al., 1984).

Even for those high school seniors in academic programs, a higher proportion of whites than blacks take at least three years of mathematic and/or science coursework (Crowley, et al., 1984).

Whites scored considerably higher than blacks on tests assessing mathematical and science achievement at all age levels and the gap widens with age (Crowley, et al., 1984).

Access to Mathematics and Science in High Schools (continued)

In an analysis of the factors that contribute to the differential levels of achievement for racial groups, North Carolina researchers found that the number of mathematics courses taken was the strongest predictive variable for students' performance on mathematics achievement tests. Thirty-seven percent of black students took only one math course, compared with 24% of white students. Thirty-two percent of white students took three math courses, compared with only 13% of black students.

Comparisons showed that students who took three math courses scored, on average, 82% correct, according to the analysis. Those who took only one course scored an average of 59% correct. Moreover, there are pronounced differences in the average number of mathematics courses taken by students who attend predominantly white high schools, compared with those who attend predominantly black high schools (Walton, 1984).

Suspensions

A 1985 report stated that, despite a reputation for progressiveness on race issues, the public schools of one Maryland county have failed to improve the academic performance of minority students. They found that minority students were underrepresented in advanced courses and were suspended at a rate far higher than that for whites. A citizens' committee called on the school board to examine why the district's 16,000 black and Hispanic students are not doing better in school and to create a task force to correct the imbalance in minority suspensions.

The U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, reports that in 1980 suspensions occurred at a rate of 452 for every 10,000 white students, 986 for every 10,000 blacks and 458 for every 10,000 Hispanic students. Blacks were also given corporal punishment at about twice the rate of white or Hispanic youngsters.

Research findings indicate that there is a strong correlation between suspensions and dropouts. Bennett and Harris (1981) and Duff and McClain (1981) have shown that schools with a disproportionate number of black suspensions also have a disproportionate number of black dropouts.

Research (Brown, McDougall and Jenkins, 1972) indicates that teacher training in discipline techniques and intergroup relations positively affects teacher attitudes toward minority students and decreases disciplinary actions.

Teacher Expectations

Research studies show that positive teacher expectations significantly affect student performance and that teachers have significantly higher expectations for white and middle class students than they do for black and working class students. Additionally, positive teacher racial attitudes are associated with enhanced minority achievement (Good and Brophy, 1971a; Antonopolis, 1972; Rubovits and Maehr, 1973; Crowl, 1971; Forehand, Ragosta and Rock, 1976; Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Harber, 1979; Cooper, 1979; Barnes, 1979; Marshall, 1980; Washington, 1982; Dusek and Gail, 1983; Emihouvich, 1983).

Summary

I. We have a pattern of continued segregation and resegregation occurring in our schools.

II. There is a serious decline in black and Hispanic student participation in undergraduate and graduate education.

III. Many minority students are subjected to inappropriate testing, rigid ability grouping, and lower teacher expectations, all of which have a negative effect on their achievement.

Every teacher, regardless of his or her subject, grade or seniority, has control of at least one of these educational practices, namely, teacher expectations.

NOTES AND INSTRUCTIONS TO PRESENTER:

The data presented in Mini-Lecture/Discussion D can be used to help participants review present conditions, accept the dimensions of the problem and recognize the need for change.

One means for presenting this material is the use of the activity "Startling Statements" (Lawrence Hall of Science, 1983). Using the above list of facts, or any others you deem appropriate, develop questions, paste each question on a 5" x 8" index card and tape one card on each participant's back without the participant seeing the question. Several people can have the same question, depending upon the size of the group and the number of questions you decide to use. Have the participants walk around the room and ask five other people the answer to the question on their backs. Once they have five answers, they should sit down, find the average and the range of their five answers.

Read each question and have the participants who had that question give the range and the average of the answers. Present the correct response and discuss any related information. Continue until all of the statements/questions have been discussed and summarize as suggested above.

Sample Startling Statements

1. In one suburban District of Columbia school system, black students account for 14% of the student and represent:

   (24)% of the special education programs
   (27)% of those described as learning disabled

2. In 1980, black and Hispanic students accounted for 24.1% of the school population nationally and (13.8)% of the gifted and talented participants.

3. In 1978, 10.4% of college undergraduates were black. In 1982, (9.8)% of college undergraduates were black.

4. From 1980 to 1982, black graduate student enrollment dropped (15)% compared with an 8.4% decline in white student enrollment.

5. The percent of black students in Harvard's M.B.A. program was 10% in the early 1970's and (4)% in 1980.

6. The proportion of black students in law schools increased in the last ten years from 4.7% to (4.9)%.

7. In 1981, (4.1)% of all Bachelor's degrees in physical sciences, mathematical sciences, computer sciences, life sciences and engineering went to blacks.

8. North Carolina researchers found that 32% of white students took three high school math courses as compared with (13)% of black students.

9. It has been estimated that (5 million) children are subjected to tests that are culturally inappropriate.

10. The U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights reported that in 1980, suspensions occurred at a rate of 452 for every 10,000 white students and (986) for every 10,000 black students.

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Worksheet 2

CULTURAL MISCOMMUNICATION

It is not uncommon for students and teachers to fail to understand one another. One reason for these misunderstandings is that there are cultural variations in the meaning of many actions and gestures.

The following are some characteristics of certain groups of people that have implications for classroom learning. Read the description for each group and decide in what ways these characteristics affect interaction between students and teachers. Note that these are broad generalizations that will not apply to every group member. However, for the purpose of this exercise we assume that these characteristics are representative of many from the designated group.

A. ASIAN AND ASIAN-AMERICAN children may have learned:

1. to show respect to people who are older or of higher status by being silent in their presence
2. to avoid expressing strong emotions (anger, sadness, frustration, enthusiasm, joy) in public
3. to refuse something offered initially and to wait until the request is repeated before accepting
4. to be other oriented. For example, an Asian child may try to put others at ease so they won't worry about his/her problems or concerns.

How do these characteristics affect teacher-student interaction?

Worksheet 2 (continued)

B. BLACK children may have learned:

1. to express emotions freely
2. to process information in nonlinear ways
3. to be very physically active
4. to interpret life events in racial terms, especially when outsiders are involved

How do these characteristics affect teacher-student interaction?

Worksheet 2 (continued)

C. NATIVE AMERICAN children may have learned:

1. to speak slowly and softly
2. to speak up in a group only when they have something specific to say
3. not to compete with peers or elders
4. to work independently

How do these characteristics affect teacher-student interaction?

Worksheet 2 (continued)

D. HISPANIC children may have learned:

1. to avoid direct eye contact when being reprimanded or scolded
2. not to walk away from confrontation (because such an act would be regarded as cowardly, deceitful or a sign of weakness)
3. to view time as unimportant
4. to stand close when talking to another person

How do these characteristics affect teacher-student interaction?

Participant Information Sheet IA

Teaching Students as They Would Be Taught: The Importance of Cultural Perspective

The Importance of World View

World view refers to the way a cultural group perceives people and events. While individual idiosyncrasies do exist, it is also true that the people who share common dialects and primary experiences learn to see "reality" in the same ways. They develop similar styles of cognition; similar processes of perceiving, recognizing, conceiving, judging, and reasoning; as well as similar values, assumptions, ideas, beliefs, and modes of thought.[2] What we see as good or bad depends on whether or not it supports our view of reality.

The world view concept was illustrated by an Anglo-American student of speech and communications who related the following two experiences, one with a Hopi Indian, the other with Trukee islanders.[3]

"Look at those clouds!" I exclaimed one afternoon. "We'll probably have rain later today."

"What clouds?" my Hopi companion asked.

"Right there!" I responded in amazement, pointing to obvious puffs of white and gray.

"All I see is the sky."

"You mean you really don't see those clouds?"

"There's nothing there but sky."

Several months later, this same student was in the opposite situation with a group of Trukee fishermen.

"I thought we were lost. There had been no sign of land for hours. My companions tried to reassure me that we weren't lost at all. They read the wave patterns like I'd use a map. All I could see were waves. Even when they pointed to specific signs, I couldn't see anything. Here we were looking at the same body of water. It felt strange to know that I simply could not perceive what they actually saw."[4]

In the words of Tulsi Saral:

> "It is thus apparent that there is not absolute reality, nor is there a universally valid way of perceiving, cognizing, and/or thinking. Each world view has different underlying assumptions. Our normal state of consciousness is not something natural or given, nor is it universal across cultures. It is simply a specialized tool, a complex structure for coping with our environment." [5]

The definition of world view used here is roughly equivalent to Triandis' meaning in "subjective culture." Triandis defines "culture" as the humanmade part of the environment, while "subjective culture" refers to the way a cultural group perceives its environment, including stereotypes, role perceptions, norms, attitudes, values, and perceived relationships between events and behaviors.[6]

Different world views or cultural orientations often lead to mutual misperceptions, hostility, or conflict. For example, the American professor and his wife, visiting Thailand for the first time, were greeted with inquiries about their weights and salaries. The Japanese businessman terminated dealings with an insensitive American because the American, not wishing to waste time or pry, initiated business discussions without the customary inquiries about family and other personal matters.

Evidence indicates that the same process of misperception that operates between members of different nations who are unaware of each other's world view also operates in many of our schools and classrooms. The "Panther Prowl," an annual homecoming assembly at a high school in central Florida, illustrates this misperception and cultural conflict. Two different musical groups had been hired to perform at the assembly, one black and one white. When the black musicians began to perform, blacks in the audience responded by clapping, stomping, singing, and dancing. The black performers kept cool, interacted with the black audience, and were clearly enjoying it. White students became very upset, demanded quiet, and many finally walked out. Black students, in turn, felt the whites were being purposefully rude and unresponsive to the black performers. Later that evening, several interracial fights broke out on the campus.

According to anthropologist Roger Abrahams, what happened at the Panther Prowl is an example of the different performance traditions in black and Anglo cultures. The Anglo-European tradition places a virtuoso performer "on a pedestal." The audience is passive recipient, and appreciation is expressed with applause at acceptable times. For many black Americans, however, the essence of the performance is an active interchange between performer and audience. Great performers, including public speakers and ministers, are those who keep their "cool" while getting their audience "hot."[7]

Students' Cultural Alternatives

Often we are unaware of, or fearful of recognizing, our students' cultural alternatives. Yet even the most sensitive and dedicated teachers can be frustrated in their attempts to reach individual learners if they are unaware of how their own cultural orientations cause learning difficulties for some children. For example, by treating Kevin the same as his classmates, Mrs. Dixon is probably stacking the deck against him. Mrs. Dixon is fearful of probing into Kevin's blackness and dismisses that fact as irrelevant. She is unable to recognize Kevin's special needs because she fears this may be racist.

Obviously it is impossible for us to fully understand the cultural orientations of all the students we will find in our classrooms. Nevertheless, there are at least two common components of any cultural orientation that we can cue into: preferred mode of communication (both verbal and nonverbal) and preferred mode of participation.

The greater the differences between the world view of teacher and students, the more likely it is that students' and teachers' preferred ways of communicating and participating are different. Those teachers who are unaware of their pupils' needs and preferences force the learner to do most of the adjusting. Those pupils who can't make the adjustment can't learn much in the classroom.

Studies examining the core values of Spanish-speaking communities and native Americans of the Southwest have identified areas of cultural conflict with the Anglo-American world view. These include priorities such as:

1. Harmony with nature rather than "controlling" or "harnessing" nature;
2. Sharing rather than "saving" the basic necessities of life (also sharing praise and blame);
3. Present time orientation rather than future time orientation (Time is a continuum. It is important to live each day as it comes. There is no strong orientation to "tomorrow." Patience rather than "action" is stressed, and there is a lack of concern for time schedules.);
4. Nonscientific rather than scientific explanations;
5. Noncompetitive behavior rather than aggressive competition;
6. Group identity rather than individuality.[8]

In the cases of Anglo-Americans, Latinos, and native Americans, the existence of different languages makes the coexistence of distinct cultures within our national boundaries apparent. The many similarities between Anglo and black culture, though, often prevent the recognition and acceptance of some distinct cultural characteristics. For instance, black English is often perceived as "slang" or poor quality standard English. Thus, when we examine how alternative world views result in classroom conflict, it seems appropriate to focus on blacks and mainstream whites.

Participation and Communication in the Classroom: Black and White Preferences

1. *Cooperation and Competition.* Most academic activities are based upon competition and individual achievement. Therefore, many Anglo middle-class children learn best working on their own, sometimes with the help of an adult. Most learn to expect and accept, and some to need and thrive on this competitive structure. Tests in

school are nearly always individual rather than group exercises. Whole systems of instruction are individualized (programmed texts, learning labs, computer-assisted instruction, and independent study projects). We motivate students with classroom games modeled after competitive sports and quiz shows (for example, baseball and *Jeopardy*). We reward individual achievement with gold stars, "happy face" stamps, and privileges.

Within the black world view, these preferences are reversed: competition and individual excellence in play and cooperation in work situations. Gay and Abrahams suggest that the preference for cooperation in work may develop "because so much of the transmission of knowledge and the customs of street culture takes place within peer groups [and thus] the black student is prone to seek the aid and assistance of his classmates at least as frequently as he does the teacher's."[9] What is nearly always interpreted by teachers as cheating, copying, or frivolous socializing may in fact be the child's natural inclination to seek help from a peer (borrowing a pencil or talking after a test has begun).

2. *The Speaker-Listener Relationship*. The typical mainstream mode is for the teacher to talk and students to listen. Students are passive recipients. And indeed, research indicates that teachers do over 75 percent of the talking in classrooms. The cardinal rule is that students must raise their hands and may not speak until given permission. One must never interrupt another who is speaking, especially the teacher.

This may sound like good classroom management, and often it is, especially for middle-class children. In many middle-class homes, adult questioning of children is common practice. Parents enjoy that kind of interaction and often use it to develop the child's ability to speak. Thus, the child is not confused when adults in school continue the process. For many black children, however, question and answer elicitation may be wrongly interpreted as hostile because it occurs most frequently in black homes when the adult is angry at the child.

What about students who learn best in a more informal setting that encourages an active interchange between the speaker and the audience? Think back to the Panther Prowl and the different participation styles of blacks and whites in the audience. Communication expert Jack Daniels shows how for many blacks communication and participation involve the whole self in a simultaneous interaction of intellect, intuition, and sensuality.[10] Since communication and participation are central to learning, it appears that children coming to school with the black world view learn best in settings encouraging a simultaneous response of thought, feeling, and movement. Silence and "sitting still" are often a sign that the black child is bored.

In the mainstream culture, on the other hand, intellectual, emotional, and physical responses are easily separated. Messages become distinct from people in the form of memos, and ideas are analyzed in their written form only. Individuals such as lawyars sometimes argue viewpoints they do not believe. In some cultures, these are impossibilities.[11] Children of this world view can be comfortable in the classroom role of passive recipient. They can learn to be "rational" and to remove emotions and feelings from decisions. Many are unable to concentrate in a more active, "noisy" environment.

3. *Written Versus Oral/Aural Tradition*. Mainstream culture emphasizes visual learning through the written word. In Euro-American tradition, "seeing is believing," and it is commonly accepted that the highest levels of thinking are possible only for humans who can reflect upon thoughts recorded on the written page. No equivalent to the African griots, those living/singing encyclopedias, exists in mainstream culture.

Many blacks, as well as other microcultural people, have grown up in an oral tradition. Herskovits claims this orientation is a carry-over from Africa. For example, traditional Africa boasted of elaborate communication systems using drums, singing, and dance rituals. From the time blacks first arrived in this country, music and the spoken word have been at the heart of the black experience.[12] Their oral/aural tradition thrives in the New World. The classroom implications of the oral/aural tradition are easily illustrated. A geography teacher in California discovered that her students, mostly black or Latino males labeled remedial, scored considerably higher on tests when she read the questions provided in written form. Another teacher, working with black and

Latino eighth graders in Texas, found that their comprehension of a U.S. history text was better if they listened to a tape of the text while reading it. Her Anglo pupils preferred to read without hearing the tape.

4. *The Uses of Words: Communication Versus Manipulation.* Both blacks and whites use words to communicate *and* to manipulate or gain power over others. The mainstream mode is usually to find meaning in the words themselves. How accurately a message is interpreted depends upon the similarity of the meanings senders and receivers attach to the words. Among blacks, however, words often become power devices, and the style of delivery is as important as the words expressed.

Within both cultures, whether one becomes a leader or a follower depends upon the ability to influence and control others. Control and influence in the white community usually accompany wealth. Among blacks, for whom wealth is more difficult to obtain, adeptness with words and skill at "performance" lead to power and influence. Abrahams and Gay have clearly identified some critical classroom implications:

> Language in the largest sense plays a fundamental role in the process of survival in ghetto neighborhoods, in addition to being the basis of acquiring leadership, status, and success. The popularly held belief that it takes brute physical strength to survive in the ghetto is a myth. It may help one endure temporarily, but fists alone are not the answer to survival. Survival is based on one's versatility and adeptness in the use of words. The man-of-words is the one who becomes the hero to ghetto youth. Consider the current conditions and compile a profile of spokesmen of ghetto action groups. These persons in the spotlight are dynamic speakers whose jobs are frequently dependent on the effective use of words, such as lawyers and ministers. Verbal ability can make the difference between having or not having food to eat, a place to live, clothes to wear, being accepted or rejected by one's peers, and being personally and emotionally secure or risking a complete loss of ego. . . . Teachers make their mistakes by looking at individual words or phrases as proof that the children are limited in their verbal abilities. For example, they fail to understand that what they choose to call profanity and coarse four letter words may be used as tools to indicate importance and emphasis. Street people are not inclined to use words for the mere sake of using them. They are used for their performance qualities.
>
> To understand the relationship that exists between herself and her students, and the students' classroom behavior, the middle-class teacher needs to realize that her older black students use a variety of verbal techniques, and that they use these techniques to discover her strengths and weaknesses, to find out where she stands on issues ranging from how "hip" she is to racial attitudes, and to locate her breaking point. Once these are discovered they help the student to exert some control over the situation.
>
> Because street culture is an oral culture, and is dependent largely upon the spoken word for its perpetuation and transmission, its language is very colorful, creative, and adaptive. It is in a constant state of flux and new words are always being invented. Further, new slang words are constantly created as a way of maintaining an in-group relationship and of excluding outsiders. Thus, there emerges something of a secret code that only in-group members completely understand. It is used by students and others in street culture to convey messages to each other about the "enemy," even in his presence. Of course, some of these terms have been picked up by white "hipsters," but often the meaning is changed because of the different cultural perspective.[13]

5. *Standard English.* The almost exclusive use of standard English in our nation's schools is a blatant example of mainstream orientation. We are not debating whether or not we accept the position that all school children should develop enough skill in standard English to make its use a functional option. We are examining the cultural conflict many children experience in schools that ignore or repress the language they have lived with since birth. According to Benitez:

> All the pre-primers available on the market assume a level of development in oral languages that the Mexican American child has not reached at the beginning of first grade. Phonologically speaking he neither hears nor discriminates certain sounds. Accustomed as he is to hearing Spanish mostly at home, he hears Spanish in the classroom instead of English and tries to decode accordingly. The result is frustration and awareness that he is failing at something [while] the other children are succeeding.[14]

The truth of Benitez's remarks is usually accepted when referring to Latino, native American, and Asian American children—children whose first language is not English. Rarely, however, is it recognized that standard English may create similar learning problems for black children.

A group of elementary teachers in a rural school in central Florida noted that, as early as first grade, they could see white students moving ahead of blacks in reading. Until they listened to tapes of the black students speaking, they were oblivious to the distinct black dialect. They then realized that asking these children to learn to read available materials was like asking whites to begin reading Old English.

Teaching others as they would be taught becomes more difficult to achieve when teachers and students have alternative world views. It's a challenge to find out "how learners would be taught" when we don't understand their language, when we misinterpret their behavior, when our "tried and true" methods of diagnosing and motivating don't work. It is imperative that we meet this challenge once we identify the potential dropouts, failures, and nonachievers.

There is no evidence that Puerto Rican, black, native American, or Mexican American children are inferior in their abilities to learn. There is evidence, however, that the cultural orientation of these children differs from that which predominates in schools. To date, most of our schools remain monocultural despite the fact that we live in a polycultural society.

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[10] Jack Daniels *et al.* "Teaching Afro-American Communication." ERIC ED 082247, November 1972.

[11] Milton Bennett, *op. cit.*

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Participant Information Sheet IB

Robert S. Feldman

Nonverbal Behavior, Race, and the Classroom Teacher

As a white teacher asks for a response to a question, her young black student shifts his eye gaze away from her, down toward the floor. Feeling that he doesn't understand the question, she rephrases it, in simpler terms. The student responds with a cryptic "um-hum," and keeps his eyes averted. The teacher becomes certain that the student is unable to understand the concept, and turns to another student in frustration.

Although the situation described above appears to represent merely the failure of a student to respond to a teacher's query, it also exemplifies another sort of failure that caused by the difficulty of cross-racial communication and, in particular, cross-racial nonverbal communication. Had the teacher understood more about the nature of black nonverbal communication and how it varies from white nonverbal behavior the scenario might have had a more positive outcome.

Even a cursory review of the research on black and white nonverbal behavior reveals a number of significant differences. For example, white and black North Americans show quite different patterns of behavior when they listen to one another. In a series of studies, LaFrance and Mayo (1976) found that while white and black listeners tended to spend the same amount of time gazing at a speaker's face when they were listening, the timing and sequence of gazing varied considerably. In addition, it has been found that black parents sometimes teach their children that looking an adult in the eye is a sign of disrespect (Byers & Byers, 1972). In contrast, white children are socialized to do just the opposite: looking away from a speaker is seen as disrespectful.

A further difference between blacks and whites relates to the use of "back-channel" behaviors, which are the short sounds that listeners make during conversation to indicate that they are listening to what the speaker is saying. The typical back-channel pattern for white listeners is to nod their heads, accompanying the nods with verbal responses such as "um-hum." Black listeners, in contrast, use *either* head nodding *or* a verbal response to indicate that they are attending to what the speaker is saying (Erickson, 1976). In a practical sense, this suggests that a black student who averts his eyes but who accompanies that behavior with a back-channel "um-hum" may be just as attentive as the white who gazes directly at the teacher.

Other research suggests that differences between white and black nonverbal behavior may be subtle indeed. For example, even the nature of head nods differs between whites and blacks. Erickson (1979) reports findings indicating that blacks tend to use "unaccented" nods, in which the head moves only slightly, while whites are more likely to use "accented" nods, which are more pronounced. Moreover, blacks may use slight, continuous, unaccented head nodding throughout a conversation, a pattern which is not typically seen in whites conversing.

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These examples of differences between white and black nonverbal behavior are in and of themselves sufficient to provoke difficulties during the educational process. However, the problem is even more complex, for research has indicated that blacks and whites not only behave differently at a nonverbal level, but may interpret or *decode* nonverbal behavior in different ways. For example, Goldberg and Mayerberg (1973) investigated the reactions of elementary school children to a teacher. Black and white second and sixth graders evaluated a white female teacher who taught them a lesson while displaying either positive, neutral, or negative affective nonverbal behavior. Although white pupils in both grades rated the "positive" teacher more favorably, only the sixth grade black pupils did so. Black second graders, on the other hand, rated the "neutral" teacher most favorably, suggesting that there are black and white differences in the nature of nonverbal behavioral decoding, at least at certain ages.

These differences in white and black nonverbal behavior have clear applications to the scenario at the beginning of this article. Instead of assuming the student's averted eyes indicate lack of understanding, a teacher more familiar with patterns of black nonverbal behavior might well attribute it to a culturally-learned behavior pattern having nothing to do with whether the student understood the question. The example illustrates, then, the possibility that differences in nonverbal behavior, both in terms of the kinds of behavior carried out and how such behavior is decoded, may occur between whites and blacks.

Interracial Interaction

Although a fair amount of evidence has been gathered indicating general *differences* in nonverbal behavior between whites and blacks, considerably less work has been done on interracial *interaction* and how such interaction affects nonverbal behavior. In fact, findings relating to interracial interaction probably are ultimately of greatest relevance to educators. For example, it is not sufficient to know that blacks generally tend to use eye gaze when listening in a different fashion from whites. What may be even more crucial is whether eye gaze patterns differ in blacks according to whether they are listening to a white as opposed to a black. Although most of the work that has been done on this question comes from noneducational settings, the results have clear implications for educational questions.

Much of the research examining nonverbal behavior in interracial interaction has been predicated on the notion that nonverbal behavior is an unobtrusive measure of racism (Crosby, Bromley, & Saxe, 1980). Typical of this type of work is a study by Weitz (1972) in which male white undergraduate subjects completed attitude scales toward blacks. The results indicated that the sample was very liberal, with subjects ranging from moderately to extremely liberal. Subsequently, in a different context, the same subjects were led to believe that they were speaking with either a black or white (bogus) partner over an intercom.

Judges rated the subjects' speech along several dimensions to determine the subjects' feelings toward their partner at the other end of the intercom. In addition, subjects were asked to respond to several measures of behavioral friendliness, and to questions of how much they liked their partner. The primary dependent variable of interest in Weitz's study was voice tone. One clear result of the study was that subjects who claimed to be the most friendly were actually the least friendly in their tone of voice and other behavioral responses when they believed they were interacting with a black partner. With white partners, however, no such negative correlations emerged. Nonverbal behavior, then, appeared to be a reliable indicator of these white subjects' true feelings toward blacks.

Other experiments have examined black-white interaction in a face-to-face context. For instance, Fugita, Wexley, and Hillery (1974) observed the nonverbal behavior of white and black interviewees during an actual job interview as a function of the race of the interviewer. They found that white interviewees had greater eye contact with interviewers of both races than black interviewees and that black interviewers received fewer and shorter glances from both white and black interviewees. Thus, it appeared that the racial composition of the pairs did affect nonverbal behavior.

In a second experiment involving an interview situation, Word, Zanna, & Cooper (1974) found that white subjects, this time acting as interviewers, behaved differently according to the race of the interviewee. The white interviewers tended to sit closer to white than black interviewees, and the interviewers showed a greater number of speech errors. There was also a difference in interviewer behavior on a combined measure of interpersonal distance, eye contact, forward lean, and shoulder orientation.

Another variable that has received attention is that of interpersonal distancing. For instance, Willis (1966) observed blacks and whites in various natural settings and found that whites consistently initiated speaking with blacks at a further distance than with other whites, a result supported by several other studies (e.g., Hendricks & Bootzin, 1976).

Interracial Interaction in an Educational Context

As noted earlier, most of the research examining nonverbal behavior in interracial interaction has been carried out in noneducational settings. One exception is a study by Simpson and Erickson (1983) examining teachers' nonverbal (and verbal) behavior in actual classroom settings. Although student performance and achievement were not controlled experimentally and thus represent a potential confound, results showed that white teachers directed more nonverbal criticism toward black males than they did toward white males, as well as showing a number of sex differences in white and black behavior patterns.

The only study examining interracial interaction in educational settings that also controlled student performance is one I carried out with Lawrence Donohoe (Feldman & Donohoe, 1978). In the study, white and black undergraduate subjects, acting as teachers, taught a lesson to a white or black student. The student was actually a confederate, whose verbal and nonverbal behaviors were predetermined. In all cases, the confederate was made to appear quite successful to the teacher, answering almost all questions correctly on a test of the lesson content. Moreover, we asked the teacher to use only the phrase, "Right—that's good," whenever the student answered a test item correctly.

This ensured not only that the teacher's verbal behavior was well controlled, but that—because of the students' excellent performance—teachers had ample opportunity to praise their students. In sum, we created a situation in which all students appeared to be successful, and in which the teacher was providing unequivocally positive verbal praise. All that varied was the race of the student and the teacher.

To examine the teachers' nonverbal behavior, we made secret videotapes of the teachers while they were verbally praising their students. We then took 20-second silent samples of each teacher and showed them to judges, who rated how pleased teachers appeared to be with their students.

The results showed clearly that the race of the student influenced the teachers' facial expressions. Both the white *and* the black teachers had more pleasant, positive facial expressions when they praised a student of their own race. White teachers looked more pleased with white students, and black teachers appeared more positive with black students—even though student performance was identical in all cases. But this was not the end of the story. Only judges who were the same race as the teachers were able to make reliable judgments; only white judges could detect the differences in white teachers' responses to white versus black students, and only black judges could identify similar differences in positivity for black teachers. The study demonstrated, then, not only behavioral differences according to the racial composition of a teacher-student pair, but decoding differences as well.

Why should the teachers appear more positive to students of their own race than to students of another race, even though in all cases the students' performance was identical? The most reasonable explanation appears to be that these differences in nonverbal behavior reflect the different attitudes many adults hold toward members of other races.

Results of a subsequent study directly supported this possibility. In the experiment, white subjects were identified who held either very positive or very prejudiced attitudes toward blacks. These subjects then acted as teachers to a successful white or black student. The spoken content of their praise once again was controlled by using a standard teaching plan. As before, samples of the nonverbal behavior of teachers were shown to a group of judges who rated how pleased the teachers appeared to be with their students.

The results showed that the high-prejudiced teachers appeared more pleased with their white students than with their black students, even though the objective performance of the white and black students was identical. Moreover, these high-prejudiced teachers were rated as significantly less pleased with black students than were the low-prejudiced teachers. Finally, there was evidence that the high-prejudiced teachers showed greater differentiation between white and black students than did the low-prejudiced teachers.

The results of this line of research suggest at least two conclusions. First, both white and black teachers appear to behave more positively toward members of their own race than toward members of other racial groups. Second, the nonverbal behavior of teachers seems to be related to their racial attitudes. The mere presence of a white or black student may be sufficient to evoke the nonverbal behaviors associated with particular attitudes. These nonverbal behaviors may be representative of the teacher's generalized feeling toward the student's race, relatively independent of the particular student or circumstances, or the behaviors may be a function of a teacher's more specific attitude toward the particular student or circumstances. In either case, the results of these experiments suggest that both the white and black teachers held attitudes favoring students of their own race and that their nonverbal behavior revealed these underlying attitudes.

Especially notable is the fact that the subjects in these experiments were responding positively on the verbal level toward their students while at the same time responding relatively negatively on a nonverbal level. The negativity of the teacher's nonverbal behavior was easy to detect, even in the short 20-second samples that the judges were given, suggesting that many incongruent messages probably were occurring during these interactions. In actual classrooms, if such incongruities between the teacher's verbal and nonverbal behavior are present during interracial interactions, the exchanges may be quite unpleasant or at least confusing for both teacher and student. Both participants might come away from the interaction with existing prejudices confirmed, setting off a cycle of negative attitudes leading to negative nonverbal behavior that supports and maintains the original attitudes.

On the other hand, evidence from our first study indicates that only same-race judges were capable of reliably discerning the nonverbal behavior of the teacher. Does this suggest that we should not be concerned if teachers are more positive toward students of their own race? For example, if a black student is not aware that his white teacher is more nonverbally positive to white students than to black students, it is possible that the black student will not be affected directly by the teacher's display of negative nonverbal behavior. This argument disregards the effect of the observation of the teacher's nonverbal behavior by those students of the same race as the teacher, who *are* capable of decoding the teacher's meaning. If, for instance, white students are aware that their teacher displays differential nonverbal behavior to white and black students, the students may learn to behave nonverbally negatively toward blacks, as research on modeling would suggest. Moreover, white students may infer (correctly) that the teacher holds more positive attitudes toward white students than toward black students, thus providing a mechanism for the spread of racial prejudice.

Implications for Teaching Practice

We have seen evidence of differences in the ways whites and blacks nonverbally indicate such responses as respect or understanding as well as differences in the ways the two groups decode nonverbal messages. In addition, the nonverbal responses of both white and black teachers appear to vary based on the race of the students involved in the interactions. Even though these conclusions are based on a few studies conducted in laboratories, the evidence is sufficiently consistent and robust—not to mention congruent with common sense—to underscore the importance of the issue.

What implications do these results have for teaching practice? It is tempting to suggest that we simply inform teachers of the problems involved when nonverbal behavior indicative of negative attitudes is displayed, identify those behaviors for them, and then tell them to eliminate these actions. However, there are at least two problems with asking teachers to "police" their own nonverbal signals to students. The fact that nonverbal behaviors frequently occur without an individual's awareness (which makes them good unobtrusive indices of affect to begin with) belies attempts to master them totally. As long as teachers of any race have negative or unfavorable attitudes toward students of other races, it is likely that some "leakage" of these feelings will inevitably occur. Second, it is possible that an emphasis on attending to nonverbal cues, and the effort involved in manipulating them, may result in teachers becoming overly conscious of their behavior. In turn, they may become less effective as instructors as they attend less to what they are saying and more to what they are doing.

However, some conscious control over one's nonverbal behavior is possible, and probably desirable. Certain teaching behaviors can be made habitual. For example, the distance teachers sit from their students can probably be controlled fairly easily. Other nonverbal behaviors that might be manipulated include the nature of body and head orientation toward the student, tone of voice, avoidance of cues related to anxiety and nervousness (such as postural shifts and excessive grooming behaviors), and maintenance of eye contact.

Some theorists also suggest that teachers can be trained to better decode the nonverbal behavior of their students. One promising technique involves asking people to make judgments about the meaning of samples of others' nonverbal behavior that have been captured on videotape. After the observer makes a judgment, he or she receives immediate feedback either in the form of positive reinforcement for a correct answer or a correction if the response is incorrect. This has produced significant improvements in accuracy (Rosenthal, Hall, Archer, DiMatteo, & Rogers, 1979), although it has not yet been used to teach decoding of nonverbal behaviors relevant to interracial interaction. One could imagine, though, making videotapes of white and black students and training teachers to learn the meaning of the nonverbal behaviors on the tapes.

Perhaps the most reasonable route to follow—at this point in our understanding of black and white nonverbal behavior—is to ensure that teachers are sensitive to the fact that students of different races may possess differing communicative codes and to inform teachers of the likely nature of such differences. Furthermore, teachers should be aware of their own attitudes and behavior and those situations in which they are likely to display negative behaviors. Such awareness is at least a first step in mitigating problems in black and white nonverbal communication.

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TRAINING EVALUATION: Units I-III — Introducing the Issues

1. What did you like best about Units I-III?

2. What did you like least about Units I-III?

3. Name three new pieces of information you learned from Units I-III.

4. Name one classroom behavior you will do differently as a result of Units I-III.

UNIT IV: SUPPLEMENTAL ACTIVITIES

Unit IV Instructions 1 3/4 - 3 hrs

Special Note

This unit is to be included only if the facilitator chooses not to use the supervisory model and skill development exercises in Units V-X. If you are using Units V-X, you should skip Unit IV.

Objectives

- To summarize the information about teacher expectations provided in Units I, II and III
- To help teachers identify positive actions which will result in behavior change

Activities

1) Discussion: How teachers communicate expectations to high and low achievers -- Transparency iii - How Do Teachers Communicate Expectations? (10 minutes).

2) Case Studies -- Worksheet 3 (35-60 minutes).

   Divide the large group into several smaller groups and have each work on one case study. Have each small group summarize its discussion for the total group (see Worksheet 3A for suggested answers to case study questions) (15-25 minutes for small group activity; 20-35 minutes for large group discussion).

3) Positive Action Steps -- Worksheets 4 and 5 (20-40 minutes).

   Divide the large group into groups of four and have them complete the worksheets. At the completion of Worksheet 4 the total group should reassemble and a report should be presented by a representative from each of the small groups. Participants should receive Worksheet 5 in order to record group reports.

4) Action Planning -- see directions on Worksheet 6 (30-60 minutes).

   Divide the group into pairs; have each individual work on his or her action plan and then discuss it with a partner (15-30 minutes for individual action plan; 15-30 minutes for discussion between pairs).

5) Evaluation of Training for Unit IV. Have the participants evaluate the training thus far.

Materials

1) Transparency iii: How Do Teachers Communicate Expectations?

2) Worksheet 3: Case Studies

3) Worksheet 3A: Facilitator Notes for Case Studies

4) Worksheet 4: Some Positive Action Steps

5) Worksheet 5: Positive Action Steps (to be given to participants after they have completed Worksheet 3 and before each group reports to the large group so that participants can add suggestions from the group)

6) Worksheet 6: My Action Plan

7) Training Evaluation: Unit IV -- Introducing the Issues

HOW DO TEACHERS COMMUNICATE EXPECTATIONS?

TEACHERS TEND TO:

- INTERACT MORE WITH HIGH ACHIEVERS AND IGNORE AND INTERRUPT LOW ACHIEVERS MORE FREQUENTLY

- ASK MORE AND HIGHER LEVEL QUESTIONS OF HIGH ACHIEVERS AND PROVIDE LOW ACHIEVERS WITH QUESTIONS THAT REQUIRE SIMPLE RECALL

- FOLLOW UP WITH PROBING QUESTIONS FOR HIGH ACHIEVERS AND CALL ON SOMEONE ELSE IF A LOW ACHIEVER IS UNABLE TO PROVIDE A PROMPT, ACCURATE RESPONSE

- PROVIDE A LONGER WAIT TIME FOR HIGH ACHIEVERS TO RESPOND TO QUESTIONS AND CUT OFF RESPONSE TIME FOR LOW ACHIEVERS WHO HESITATE

- SEAT HIGH ACHIEVERS CLOSER TO THE TEACHER'S USUAL POSITION AND CLUSTER LOW ACHIEVERS FURTHER AWAY

- PRAISE HIGH ACHIEVERS MORE OFTEN AND CRITICIZE LOW ACHIEVERS MORE FREQUENTLY

- PROVIDE SUPPORTIVE COMMUNICATIONS FOR HIGH ACHIEVERS AND ENGAGE IN DOMINATING BEHAVIORS WITH LOW ACHIEVERS

- PROVIDE HIGH ACHIEVERS WITH DETAILED FEEDBACK AND GIVE LESS FREQUENT, LESS ACCURATE AND LESS PRECISE FEEDBACK TO LOW ACHIEVERS

- DEMAND MORE WORK AND EFFORT FROM HIGH ACHIEVERS AND ACCEPT LESS FROM LOW ACHIEVERS

Worksheet 3

CASE STUDIES

Instructions

The following scenes take place in Mr. Kelly's class at the West Central School. The school has a sizeable black population and a small percentage of Hispanic students.

Read each of the scenes and identify Mr. Kelly's teaching behaviors that appear to vary for different students. Then decide if Mr. Kelly shows different expectations for each student in the scene.

Scene 1

"Good morning, Lynn (a white female)...Take your seats please. Let's get this week off to a good start. Class, all of you have read **The Fantastic Days**. Jeff (a white male), who was your favorite character and why?"
"Pinkerton was my favorite character because of his sense of humor."
"Good answer. Lynn, what happened to break the magic spell that was cast?"
"Well, the people started believing in Pinkerton's powers. The spell would only work if everyone believed."
"That's right."

Tony (a Hispanic male) has been very quiet during the whole period. At times he has raised his hand to answer and Mr. Kelly has not called on him. Toward the end of the class Mr. Kelly says:

"Tony, did Pinkerton or Belle save the town from destruction?"
"Belle."
"O.K."

-- Are differing expectations present in this scene? Identify and explain.

-- If present, how are these expectations communicated?

-- How could more positive expectations be communicated?

Worksheet 3 (continued)

Scene 2

"This science experiment has helped us determine the effect of light on plant growth. What have you learned from this experiment? Yes, Leroy (a black male)."

"I learned that plants can grow without the sun."
"Good try, Leroy. David (a white male), what did you learn?"
"I would say that a plant could grow in the dark."
"David, did we grow any plants in the dark?"
"No."
"Did we grow all of the plants in the sunlight?"
"No, we grew some under a light bulb. That small one - we grew it in the shade."
"Right. Now, can you restate your conclusion, David?"

-- Are differing expectations present in this scene? Identify and explain.

-- If present, how are these expectations communicated?

-- How could more positive expectations be communicated?

Scene 3

"We are going to construct a Navaho village. Each group will be responsible for different geographic features and dwellings. Begin by tearing strips of newspaper, then mix the paste for the papier maché."

Worksheet 3 (continued)

Surveying the room, Mr. Kelly notices that Marguerita (a Hispanic female) is measuring the paste ingredients incorrectly.

"Marguerita, let me measure that for you. There you go. Now it is ready to be stirred. Good work."

At another table, Mr. Kelly notices that John (a white male) is having a similar problem. Mr. Kelly walks over to the group and says, "John, it is important to measure accurately to get paste of the proper consistency. First, get a measuring cup, then measure each ingredient separately, combine them and stir well. I'm sure you can do it."

-- Are differing expectations present in this scene? Identify and explain.

-- If present, how are they communicated?

-- How could more positive expectations be communicated?

Scene 4

"It is nearly time to be dismissed. Be sure you know your homework assignment for tomorrow. Work to page 72 in your arithmetic notebook and on Wednesday I will work with groups to answer questions you might have."

Later. . . William (a black male) is leaving for the day.

"William, I know that arithmetic is giving you some problems. Why don't you work to page 68 this evening, O.K.? That would be very good. See you tomorrow."

-- Are differing expectations present in this scene? Identify and explain.

-- If present, how are they communicated?

-- How could more positive expectations be communicated?

Scene 5

"I have corrected all of the compositions you wrote last week. As you work on this assignment I will call you up individually to discuss them."

"Maurice (a black male), your paper was O.K. and I gave you a 'B'. You could try to make it a little longer next time."

"Bill (a white male), you wrote a good paper (B+) but some things could be improved. The topic sentences for some of the paragraphs were a little weak. Make sure you are clear about what makes a good topic sentence because I know you can do better next time."

"Jane (a black female), this was not the best paper you have done which is why you only received a 'C+.' You must hand in a neat, clean paper with a one-inch margin on each side."

-- Are differing expectations present in this scene? Identify and explain.

-- If present, how are they communicated?

-- How could more positive expectations be communicated?

Worksheet 3A

FACILITATOR NOTES FOR CASE STUDIES

Scene 1

- Clearly different expectations are presented for the three students. Lynn and Jeff, the two white students, are asked higher level questions than Tony, the Hispanic student. Mr. Kelly asks Tony a question which requires only a one-word response. He also does not acknowledge Tony during times when he has raised his hand to answer.

- These expecations are communicated by Mr. Kelly's difference in questioning. He also responds differently to the students. After the white students respond, he gives positive feedback, whereas, Tony's response is acknowledged by an "O.K.", which doesn't indicate as positive a reaction as his response to Lynn and Jeff.

- More positive expecations could be communicated by asking Tony higher level questions which give him an opportunity to provide an answer requiring more thought. Additionally, Mr. Kelly's response to all students should be more uniform and positive.

Scene 2

- Different expectations are communicated for David and Leroy. Leroy and David are both asked the same question; however, David's answer is expanded upon. In contrast, Leroy's answer is cut off with a response that indicates an inadequate answer. David is given an opportunity to think through his answer with several guide questions from Mr. Kelly.

- Mr. Kelly's different expectations for student ability are demonstrated by how he responds to each student. Spending time with David, helping him to think through his response and probing are all indicators of positive expectations. Mr. Kelly appears to believe that with a little help David will come through with the correct answer. Leroy, however, may try, but is not expected to answer correctly.

- A more positive expectation could be communicated to Leroy by providing him with the same opportunity given David to think through the question and restate his conclusion.

Scene 3

- Marguerita, the Hispanic student, is not expected to be able to measure the ingredients correctly. John, the white student, is expected to be able to do it correctly.

- These expectations are communicated when Mr. Kelly takes over the activity for Marguerita and does the measurement for her. This indicates that despite his instructions he doesn't believe she is capable of following them. John, however, is expected to do the measurement correctly, since Mr. Kelly goes over each step with him.

Worksheet 3A (continued)

-- A more positive expectation could be communicated by assuming that males and females have the same capabilities. Additionally, differences in ethnicity shouldn't influence expectations. Marguerita should be given the same opportunity as John to follow through on the directions.

Scene 4

-- A different expectation is given for William when he is expected to work only to page 68 instead of to page 72.

-- This is communicated by stating that the work has been difficult in the past for William, and therefore he is not expected to grasp new material.

-- A more positive expectation would allow William to attempt the entire assignment and to try to spend some additional time with him if his homework results indicate tht he needs some individual attention.

Scene 5

-- Different expectations are shown for the white and black students. Maurice and Jane receive comments about length and cleanliness and Bill receives a comment on content.

-- The expectations indicate that the teacher is looking for different things from each student for this assignment. The black students are provided feedback in areas that are less substantive than the areas addressed for the white students.

-- A more positive expectation would be for Mr. Kelly to provide comments on issues of substance for all the students. Thus, the black students can also benefit from substantive critical analysis.

Worksheet 4

SOME POSITIVE ACTION STEPS

Instructions

Behavior change is slow. First steps include awareness and recognition of options and alternative behaviors. The following behaviors that communicate expectations can be used in ways that encourage the participation of all students in the teaching/learning process.

Divide the large group into smaller groups of four. Assign each group three behaviors to discuss. Have each group record specific teaching activities that would encourage all students to participate (15-30 minutes). Have each group report back to the whole group (15-30 minutes). Prior to group reports, distribute Worksheet 5 so that participants can record group suggestions for future reference.

BEHAVIORS THAT COMMUNICATE EXPECTATIONS

1. Using wait time
2. Discussing wrong answers
3. Giving appropriate rewards
4. Using praise
5. Giving unambiguous feedback
6. Giving more attention
7. Providing role models
8. Calling on minority students in a variety of ways
9. Changing seating arrangements
10. Providing challenges
11. Varying types of questions
12. Encouraging independence
13. Establishing rules

Worksheet 4 (continued)

POSITIVE ACTION STEPS

1. Category: ____________________

Encouraging Behaviors:

2. Category: ____________________

Encouraging Behaviors:

3. Category: ____________________

Encouraging Behaviors:

Worksheet 5

POSITIVE ACTION STEPS

What can you do? Read the sample behaviors for each category. Then add your own ideas for behaviors to help students feel a part of the class, to communicate high expecations of them.

1. **Using Wait-time**

   E.g., after calling on students, mentally count to eight. Give them plenty of time to respond.

2. **Discussing Wrong Answers**

   E.g., when students give incorrect or incomplete answers to questions, probe further with a series of questions to help the students locate and correct the error.

3. Giving Appropriate Rewards

E.g., practice rewarding the behavior you mean to encourage.
Focus most on intellectual quality and demonstrated performance.
Avoid commenting on neatness and length when content of work is the real issue.

4. Using Praise

E.g., use praise to reinforce academic performance.
Use it equally among all students.
Avoid overuse of praise for socially acceptable behavior (typically directed toward females).
Provide specific praise for academic skills.

5. **Giving Unambiguous Feedback.**

E.g., when commenting on students' performance, give clear and specific feedback.

Say what is right and wrong and avoid overuse of phrases like: O.K., good, nice try, not quite. These phrases suggest that the student is not expected to improve.

6. **Giving More Attention**

E.g., focus on students who have received less attention from you in the past and initiate additional high quality interactions both on a one-to-one basis and in groups.

7. Providing Role Models

E.g., use volunteers and/or other school personnel in class who can model positive qualities or characteristics which are different from yours. People who are representative of a different race, culture, language, sex, interests, or skills increase students' exposure to others.

8. Calling on Minority Students in a Variety of Ways

E.g., if you are accustomed to a single question-answer style, try varying the ways you call on students so that you present many opportunities to participate. You may

ask for volunteers
choose respondents
have one student select respondents
pair students and have them respond to each other
have groups develop answers and responses for the group

Worksheet 5 (continued)

9. **Changing Seating Arrangements**

E.g., if you are accustomed to a single seating pattern, try changing the seating and moving your own desk.

Try to spend time physically close to students who have been seated away from your usual location.

10. **Providing Challenges**

E.g., evaluate assignments made to students and make sure there is an element of challenge. Tasks that are too limited suggest you lack confidence in the student.

Worksheet 5 (continued)

11. Varying Types of Questions

E.g., assess the type of questions you ask and concentrate on asking open-ended, thought-provoking questions with students who usually get the "yes-no" type of questions.

Sometimes ask students why or how they arrived at their answers.

12. Encouraging Independence

E.g., when introducing an activity, give students every opportunity to do the task themselves.

Demonstrate the task again or rephrase instructions rather than doing the task for them.

Worksheet 5 (continued)

13. **Establishing Rules**

E.g., when interacting with students in or out of class, avoid punishing some students for behaviors you usually accept from others.

Be sure that all students know the rules of your classroom.

Hold them accountable for following the rules.

Worksheet 6

ACTION PLAN

Directions

Review the list of teaching behaviors that communicate expectations to students. Ask participants to choose three behaviors to monitor in their own teaching. Under each behavior ask them to write a short statement to identify: (A) ways to monitor one's own teaching behavior; (B) when this can be done, and how often; (C) ways to change the behavior, if necessary.

BEHAVIORS THAT COMMUNICATE EXPECTATIONS

1. Using wait time
2. Discussing wrong answers
3. Giving appropriate rewards
4. Using praise
5. Giving unambiguous feedback
6. Giving more attention
7. Providing role models
8. Calling on minority students in a variety of ways
9. Changing seating arrangements
10. Providing challenges
11. Varying types of questions
12. Encouraging independence
13. Establishing rules

Worksheet 6 (continued)

MY ACTION PLAN

From the list of behaviors that communicate expectations, I have chosen to monitor the following three behaviors in my own teaching:

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

1. ______________________________
Name of behavior I am monitoring

A. How will I monitor this behavior?

____

____

____

____

____

____

B. When? How often?

____

____

C. What can I do to change, if necessary?

____

____

____

____

____

Worksheet 6 (continued)

2. ______________________________
Name of behavior I am monitoring

A. How will I monitor this teaching behavior?

B. When? How often?

C. What can I do to change, if necessary?

Worksheet 6 (continued)

3. ______________________________
Name of behavior I am monitoring

A. How will I monitor this teaching behavior?

B. When? How often?

C. What can I do to change, if necessary?

TRAINING EVALUATION: Unit IV -- Supplemental Activities

1. What did you like best about Unit IV?

2. What did you like least about Unit IV?

3. Name three new pieces of information you learned from Unit IV.

4. Name one classroom behavior you will do differently as a result of Unit IV.

UNIT V: IDENTIFYING BEHAVIORS THAT ESTABLISH A POSITIVE CLASSROOM CLIMATE

CLIMATE VARIABLES

Unit V Instructions 2 hrs + one week between units

Objectives

- To introduce a framework for organizing teacher behaviors
- To identify specific encouraging and discouraging teacher behaviors that impact on **classroom climate**
- To practice behaviors which establish a positive climate for individual students

Activities

1) Present definitions of climate, teaching and response opportunity variables and an explanation of why this framework has been developed -- Transparency iv (10 minutes).

   Presenting the definitions:

   There are so many discrete behaviors that we demonstrate in the classroom that it is difficult for us to be aware of them all. To help us focus on our classroom actions, we have clustered behaviors into three categories. We call these climate variables, teaching variables and response opportunity variables. As with the other variables, if a teacher changes the climate variables, the result is a change in the attitude and the behavior of the student.

2) Transparency v: Climate Variables in the Classroom.

   Directions: In the large group, ask participants for one encouraging and one discouraging teacher behavior for each category listed in the center column of "Climate Variables" (20 minutes).

3) Mini-lecture/Discussion E: Reviewing the Research on Classroom Climate (20 minutes).

4) Identification of Encouraging and Discouraging Behaviors for Climate Variables: Worksheets 7A and 7B.

   Directions: Divide the large group into several smaller groups of five to seven people. Ask each group to appoint a facilitator and a recorder. The recorder from each group reports back to the larger group. Distribute Worksheet 7A. Have participants compare answers developed by the group with the answers outlined on Worksheet 7B. Make additions, if necessary, to include contributions from the small group activity (20 minutes for group activity; 20 minutes for reporting back; 20 minutes for additions to worksheet 7A).

5) Self-evaluation for Climate Variables: Worksheet 8 (10 minutes for discussion and assignment).

As indicated in earlier units, black students have disporportionately been perceived as low achievers. Teachers can use this self-evaluation as an opportunity to examine their attitudes towards black students.

The climate self-evaluation form outlines specific behaviors that have been clustered in the affective climate domain. These include:

- physical closeness
- courtesy
- personal interest and compliments
- accepting feelings
- multicultural environment

Self-evaluation is intended to raise participants' awareness of selected behavior patterns with targeted students. Before class the teacher decides on a target student for this observation. During class the teacher concentrates on his or her behavior with the selected student. After class the teacher circles the number on the scale for each item which he/she believes characterizes his/her behavior with the student. A score of 3 or 4 indicates a basically encouraging behavior pattern.

Teachers should use the self-evaluation sheet on climate variables during a one-week period with two perceived low achievers and two perceived high achievers they have identified. Self-evaluation can be used as a guide for improving interaction skills. Teachers should practice encouraging behaviors with those students and in those areas needing improvement.

To review:

A) The facilitator should:

- Provide each teacher with four individual self-evaluation sheets for climate variables.
- Encourage teachers to examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students.
- Ask teachers to identify two perceived high achieving students and two perceived low achieving students.
- Allow one week for teachers to complete self-evaluation forms and to then practice encouraging interactions.

B) Teachers are asked to:

- Review the self-evaluation sheet prior to class and identify one high achieving student for the first self-evaluation.
- After class fill in the self-evaluation form for the first identified high achieving student.
- Repeat the process for the second high achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
- Identify one low achieving student before class.
- After class, fill in the self-evaluation form for the identified low achieving student.
- Repeat the process for the second low achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
- Review and compare results of the self-evaluations.
- Identify high and low scoring variables.
- Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students on those variables that you rated 0, 1, or 2.

6) Assignment: Prepare to teach a 5-minute lesson to colleagues that would allow you to practice the climate variables.

Materials

1) Transparency iv: Definitions of Variables

2) Transparency v: Climate Variables in the Classroom

3) Mini-lecture/Discussion E: Reviewing the Research on Classroom Climate

4) Worksheets 7A and 7B: Climate Variables in the Classroom and Examples of Climate Variables in the Classroom

5) Four copies of Worksheet 8: Self-Evaluation Form for Climate Variables, for each teacher participating in the training

DEFINITIONS

CLIMATE VARIABLES:

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH AFFECT STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF, AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH BUILD OR DESTROY RESPECT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

TEACHING VARIABLES:

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH PROVIDE OR WITHHOLD INFORMATION, ASSISTANCE AND ACADEMIC SUPPORT

RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES:

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH INFLUENCE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

CLIMATE VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH AFFECT STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF, AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH BUILD OR DESTROY RESPECT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

DISCOURAGING ENCOURAGING

I. PHYSICAL CLOSENESS

II. COURTESY

III. PERSONAL INTEREST AND COMPLIMENTS

IV. ACCEPTING FEELINGS

V. MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION E

Reviewing the Research on Classroom Climate

There are many aspects which comprise classroom climate. Several of the research findings on selected dimensions of classroom climate follow:

I. Physical Closeness

Many educators have commented on the issue of cultural diversity, interpersonal relations and physical closeness. There is the sensitive issue of a teacher touching a student in a manner that is or could be perceived as sexual. Additionally, some cultures view touching particular parts of the body as an extremely personal act. For example, among the Indochinese, Lao and Hmong are extremely sensitive to being touched on the head, due to their animistic belief that the seat of the soul is in the head. Therefore, touching the head may scare the spirit away. Other cultures perceive non-touching or holding one's distance when communicating as unfriendly or even hostile. Black and Hispanic cultures tend to highly value interpersonal relations and physical proximity. An Anglo-Saxon teacher who is merely following the norms of his/her culture may appear unfriendly or even hostile to the black or Hispanic child.

It is important to point out that in situations where there is a low trust level, touching can be viewed as a violation of one's person. Educators need to build positive relationships with students, emphasizing proximity before increasing physical contact.

Research indicates that physical closeness is for the most part a good teaching technique and that those students who are physically closest to the teacher receive more academic and non-academic attention. Daly and Suite (1982) found that students who sat in the front of the classroom were called on more frequently by teachers than those students who sat in the back of the classroom. Etscheidt et al. (1984) found that close teacher proximity (within three feet) resulted in fewer discipline responses for ten-yearolds, suggesting that proximity may be a useful part of a management plan for disruptive students. Adams and Biddle (1970) videotaped sixteen classrooms at grade levels one, six, and eleven. In all sixteen classrooms, they found that the students most likely to be asked questions or to participate in discussions were seated in a T-shaped area with the top of the T at the center-front of the room and the stem of the T extending down the middle of the room. Sixty-three percent of the times that a student spoke, that student was in one of the first three seats in the stem of the T.

Ray Rist (1972) reported that the teachers he observed over a three-year period touch the students more often and spend more time with those they had identified as fast learners. The students who were viewed as high achievers were placed at one table. The teachers spent more time working with students at the high ability table and used the chalkboard closest to that table even when working with the entire class.

Teachers often communicate their approval and encouragement by touching their students in a supportive manner and by staying physically close to them. Additionally, teachers need to be mindful of the particular preferences of cultural groups in order not to offend any students.

II. Courtesy

Ray Rist (1972) observed a kindergarten classroom over the entire year in which the teacher had grouped the students by ability. By the end of the year, the children identified by the teacher as high achievers began to model their own relationships with the children identified as perceived lows after that of the teacher. Those students labeled high achievers would belittle those students who had been labeled low achievers.

Lippitt et al. (n.d.) and Good and Brophy (1973) have commented on the failure of many teachers to model behavior reflecting courtesy and respect toward low status students. It is important for teacher behavior to reflect courtesy and respect for all students. Otherwise, teacher behavior, whether it be conscious or unconscious, may be providing some children with license to ridicule other children.

III. Personal Interest and Compliments

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights points out in Teachers and Students (1973) that teachers must encourage culturally different students to express their own experiences and interests in the classroom if the teacher is to make the course content relevant. Taking time to listen to a student who wishes to share a personal experience with the teacher or the class is often difficult. But repeatedly refusing to listen to certain students communicates to them that their lives are unimportant.

Teachers can benefit by encouraging students to share their own experiences. Certainly a teacher should not force a reluctant child to share his/her personal, out-of-school life; our concern is more with the response of the teacher to students who volunteer to tell their own experiences. Turner and Purkey (1983) maintain that students respond best when they are invited to feel valuable, able and responsible and that teachers can transmit verbal and non-verbal messages that promote positive student reactions. Foley (1982) outlines a variety of techniques that can help a teacher create the atmosphere of a "quality circle," a Japanese management technique in which each member of a group shares and contributes to the learning experience. Miller (1981) outlines specific non-verbal communication (facial expressions, eyes, vocal intonation, touching and movements) that can help a teacher express personal interest.

IV. Accepting Feelings

Some evidence exists that students learn more in classrooms where teachers are more apt to accept students' feelings (Munroe, 1983). One study, reported by Aspy (1965), revealed that the students of teachers who expressed "emphathic understanding" gained significantly more in reading than the students of teachers who infrequently demonstrated this quality. Lujan's (1981) research points out that warm, friendly teacher behavior does not foster academic achievement directly, but rather teacher warmth affects students' academic engagement which in turn affects students' achievement. Coffman (1981) studied the relationship between student perceptions of teacher empathy and learning outcomes. Data analysis supported previous research findings that empathetic teacher behaviors facilitate more meaningful learning experiences.

Are teachers equally empathetic to all their students? The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1973) found that teachers expressed acceptance of feeling twice as often for Anglos as for Mexican Americans. Jackson (1968) reported a study of the accuracy in which teachers predicted students' feelings toward school. Teachers predicted the feelings of high I.Q. students accurately 55 percent of the time. For low I.Q. students, only 35 percent of the predictions were accurate.

Ginott in Teacher and Child (1972) and Kraft (1975) provide many illustrations of handling difficult classroom situations by accepting and clarifying the feelings of the students involved. Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training (1970) and Teacher Effectiveness Training (1974) detail the use of this method in dealing with parent-child conflicts as well as teacher-student conflicts. Meyers (1984) outlines for teachers an application of psychologist Carl Rogers' teachings to enhance the learning environment. Clarke (1983) discusses ways to teach children to care through role modeling empathetic behavior.

V. Multicultural Environment

A school with a positive climate is one characterized by trust and caring, mutual respect between students and teachers, and high morale. In setting a tone and creating a climate, teachers need to be aware of the importance of creating a multicultural environment. Children may not feel comfortable in a school environment if they cannot see themselves and their culture reflected in a positive manner. Research indicates that positive role models have a significant effect upon self-concept and self-concept is significantly related to student achievement (Beane, 1985). It is essential that the historical and cultural contributions of minority individuals be presented throughout the school year through curricular materials, instructional activities, bulletin boards and displays. The world views and social, economic and cultural contributions of diverse ethnic groups should be highlighted.

The importance of nonbiased multicultural instructional materials for positive race relations and effective teaching has been emphasized by experts and upheld in research. The self-fulfilling effects of textbook stereotyping on the attitudes of students have been well documented (Jackson, 1944; Litcher and Johnson, 1969; Forehand and Ragosta, 1976).

Curricular materials must be reviewed for stereotypes and bias and if biased materials are used in the classroom, they should be carefully critiqued and commented upon. Although textbooks have improved somewhat in recent years, Thomas (1981) cites a 1980 report from the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights documenting that in many books white boys still dominate, white girls still cry a lot, minority boys must still overcome all odds before they can be accepted, and minority girls still do not exist. Students' attitudes and perceptions are affected by the images they see in instructional materials. If students can find only a few minority people in their school texts and those are in stereotyped roles, they are likely to perceive minorities as less important and less worthy than others. Time and effort should be spent dispelling misconceptions, stereotypes and prejudices that the materials present and/or that students appear to have.

Students should be helped to understand that different groups might perceive the same historical contributions or contemporary situations very differently. Assignments can be made so that students have an opportunity to discover the attitudes and values of different groups participating in the same historical or contemporary situation. For example, while teaching slavery, different students can be asked to portray the attitudes of three participating groups -- the slaves, the slave dealers and the slave owners -- toward slavery, toward themselves and toward one other. Gradually students can become aware of more subtle distinctions between group perceptions. Efforts should be made throughout the educational process to point out that people of different social classes, geographic locations, ethnic and racial groups often view the same social-historical events from different perspectives.

To summarize, it is important that the teacher take a leadership role in creating a multicultural environment in the classroom through the curriculum, instructional activities and room displays. Educators should provide for a multicultural environment through a variety of efforts: using positive role models, highlighting contributions of diverse cultures, and addressing issues of prejudice and discrimination, not only in history and current events, but also in the curriculum and in classroom dialogue.

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Worksheet 7A

CLIMATE VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH AFFECT STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH BUILD OR DESTROY RESPECT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

For each category below, list three examples of observable teacher behavior that encourage student achievement and three examples that discourage student achievement.

Categories

	Discouraging	Encouraging
	I. Physical Closeness	
Example	Does not go near student	Moves within arm's reach of student on a regular basis
1.	____________________	____________________
2.	____________________	____________________
3.	____________________	____________________
	II. Courtesy	
1.	____________________	____________________
2.	____________________	____________________
3.	____________________	____________________

Worksheet 7A (continued)

Discouraging	Encouraging

III. Personal Interest and Compliments

1. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

2. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

3. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

IV. Accepting Feeling

1. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

2. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

3. ______________________________ ______________________________
______________________________ ______________________________

WORKSHEET 7B

EXAMPLES OF CLIMATE VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH AFFECT STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH BUILD OR DESTROY RESPECT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

Discouraging	Encouraging
I. Physical Closeness	
Rejects a student's attempt to touch; slaps, grabs, touches angrily	Touches student in a friendly manner
Does not go near student	Moves within arm's reach of student on a regular basis
Isolates student	Makes constant effort to integrate student into classroom activities
II. Courtesy	
Makes rude, insulting remarks to student	Is courteous to student
Is sarcastic toward student	Is sincere toward student
Is condescending and patronizing toward student	Does not talk down to student; shows respect for student
III. Personal Interest and Compliments	
Curtails or belittles student's statements or ignores student	Takes personal interest in student; integrates personal knowledge of student into the lesson where appropriate
Does not initiate public or private conversation with student	Initiates public and private conversations with student; expresses interest in the student's experiences
Never offers compliments	Gives student compliments
IV. Accepting Feelings	
Disparages student's feelings	Accepts and reflects student feelings
Refuses to allow student to discuss his/her feelings	Encourages student to express his/her feelings
Evaluates student feelings	Accepts student feelings in a non-evaluative manner

Worksheet 8

SELF-EVALUATION FORM

HOW I INTERACT WITH A STUDENT: CLIMATE VARIABLES

Student's Name ______________________________________

Instructions

Identify two low and two high achieving students. Complete a separate form for each of the four identified students during a one-week period.

During one class, note your behavior with the student whose name you have placed above. After class circle the number on the scale for each item which you believe characterizes your behavior with the student. A score of 3 or 4 indicates basically encouraging behavior while a score of 1 or 0 indicates a basically discouraging behavior pattern. At the end of one week compare the scores to see if there is a pattern of difference between your behavior toward high achieving students and low achieving students. Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in those areas needing improvement.

	Discouraging Interactions		Encouraging Interactions
1.	I never come within arm's reach of the student.	0 1 2 3 4	I move within arm's reach of the student.
2.	I touch the student in an unfriendly manner. I pull, slap or touch angrily.	0 1 2 3 4	I touch the student in a friendly manner.
3.	I make cute or insulting remarks to the student.	0 1 2 3 4	I interact with the student in a warm, courteous fashion.
4.	I curtail or belittle the student's personal statements.	0 1 2 3 4	I demonstrate a personal interest in the student and provide personal compliments.
5.	I discourage or disparage the student's feelings.	0 1 2 3 4	I accept this student's feelings in a non-evaluative manner.
6.	I display hostility and anger toward the student.	0 1 2 3 4	I correct this student's behavior in a calm, courteous manner.

UNIT VI: ESTABLISHING A POSITIVE CLIMATE FOR SELECTED STUDENTS

Unit VI Instructions 3 hrs + one month between units

Objective

- To practice behaviors that provide a **positive classroom climate** for selected students

Activities

1) Review definitions: see Transparency in Unit V, p. 97 (10 minutes).

2) Review assignment on climate self-evaluation and discuss outcomes; any differences in behavior toward high and low achieving black, Hispanic and white students; any inequalities, and success and/or problems in practicing encouraging interventions; see Worksheet 8, Unit V, p. 113 (20 minutes).

3) Mini-lecture/Discussion F: The Peer Observation Process.

4) Coding Climate Variables: The facilitator "teaches" a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (participants in the workshop, four labeled high achievers and four labeled low achievers). The rest of the participants practice coding the facilitator's teaching on climate variables; Worksheets 9, 10 and 11 (presentation and discussion -- 45 minutes).

5) Ask for two volunteers to each present a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (four participants who have been labeled low achievers and four participants who have been labeled high achievers). Have participants practice coding climate variables and discuss the results;. Worksheets 9, 10 and 11 (35 minutes).

6) Initiate and schedule a peer-observation process to review behavior on climate variables: Worksheet 9 (30 minutes).

The procedures include pre-observation directions listed below, the peer observation process itself outlined on pp. 117 and 119, and the post-observation meeting outlined on p. 120.

- Provide teachers with Guidelines for Coding Peer Observation Forms, Peer Observation Forms for Climate Variables and Instructions for Coding Climate Variables: Worksheets 9, 10 and 11.
- Establish teacher-peer teams, allow teachers to choose their own partners.
- Allow a four-week period for teacher-peer teams to observe each other.
- Each teacher should be observed four times in the four-week period.

- o The teacher who is being observed decides which eight students (four high achieving and four low achieving students) are to be targeted for observations. We reiterate the importance of having teachers examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students. We strongly recommend that teachers choose the same eight students for all peer observation throughout this manual.

- o Provide the observers with an outline of the lesson used for observation, as well as a seating chart.

- o Schedule a bi-weekly post-observation conference for observer and observed to analyze results of observations.

  - — Compare the encouraging and discouraging scores of high and low achievers.

  - — Note that an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.

- o Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in areas of identified need.

7) Have teachers begin to record data on Teacher Data Form and Student Data Form.

8) Meet monthly with small groups of peer observation teams.

   - o Establish a schedule for you, the supervisor/facilitator, to meet with small groups of peer observation teams to discuss progress and problems in addressing climate variables with identified students.

   - o Have teachers keep you informed about the low achieving students they have identified and the progress that has been made.

9) Evaluation of Training for Units V-VI. Have the participants evaluate the training thus far.

Materials

1) Transparency iv: Definitions of Variables (See Unit V, p. 97)
2) Worksheet 8: Self-Evaluation for Climate Variables (See Unit V, p. 113)
3) Mini-Lecture/Discussion F: The Peer Observation Process
4) Worksheet 9: Guidelines for Coding Peer Evaluation Forms
5) Worksheet 10: Peer Observation Form: Climate Variables
6) Worksheet 11: Instructions for Coding Climate Variables
7) Teacher Data Form and Student Data Form
8) Mini-lecture/Discussion G: Guidelines for Peer Observation Conferences
9) Training Evaluation: Unit V-VI — Climate Variables

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION F

THE PEER-OBSERVATION PROCESS

The Peer Observation Process

It is not enough to pay attention to our own behavior in the classroom. We need some additional assistance and we can provide each other with this assistance through the peer observation process.

Peer observation teams will be established. Each teacher will choose a colleague. Each will then observe the other using a structured coding sheet. The teacher that is being observed will select four high achieving students and four low achieving students and provide the teacher who is observing with a seating chart that identifies the selected students. We recommend that black and Hispanic students be included in your sample whenever possible.

-- Read Guidelines for Coding Peer Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting (Worksheet 9)

-- Take out coding sheets (Worksheet 10) and review the Instructions for Coding Climate Variables (Worksheet 11)

Worksheet 9

GUIDELINES FOR PEER OBSERVATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR POST-OBSERVATION MEETING

The Peer Observation Process

1. Use one observation sheet for each observation. The observation should last a minimum of one-half hour.

2. Observe teacher student interactions with four low achieving students and four high achieving students selected by the teacher being observed and named on the left hand side of the sheet.

3. Selected students should be identified by a seating chart provided to the observer before the observation begins. A lesson outline should also be provided.

Tallying

4. When observing the variables outlined on the top of each of your observation sheets, put a small vertical mark in the encouraging box of each identified variable when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly encouraging. Put a small vertical mark in the discouraging box when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly discouraging. For example, on the climate sheet (looking at the category of physical closeness), if the teacher moves within an arm's length of the student, make a tally mark in the encouraging box; if the teacher removes the student from class interaction, record a tally mark in the discouraging box. (See Instructions for Coding Climate Variables, pp. 129-131.)

5. Total the tally marks in each column and figure the percentage of tallies for perceived high achieving students, perceived low achieving students, white students and black/Hispanic students for each variable. Calculate percentages for the tallies as follows:

    - % encouraging perceived low achievers (For example, eight tallies in this column out of 32 tallies total for that variable = 25%.)
    - % discouraging perceived low achievers
    - % encouraging perceived high achievers
    - % discouraging perceived high achievers
    - % encouraging white students
    - % discouraging white students
    - % encouraging black/Hispanic students
    - % discouraging black/Hispanic students

6. For each variable, compare the total number of encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted low achieving students with encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted high achieving students. Make similar comparisons regarding the discouraging behaviors for each variable, as well as similar comparisons between students based on their racial or ethnic group. Note that an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.

Worksheet 9 (continued)

The Post-Observation Meeting

7. Hold a post-observation meeting as close to the observation as possible. Discuss the following questions during the post observation meeting:

   How many black and Hispanic students were chosen as high achievers?

   How many black and Hispanic students were chosen as low achievers?

   What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived low-achieving students in your totals for physical closeness, courtesy, personal interest, and compliments and accepting feelings?

   What behaviors communicate these messages for perceived low-achieving students for each of your totals?

   What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

   What behaviors communicate these messages to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

   Examine your race/ethnic group totals. Were there any differences in behavior demonstrated toward black and Hispanic students vs. white students? What kinds of messages are being communicated to each group?

   What kinds of behavior changes are appropriate for you to make for each variable?

8. The **multicultural environment** does not lend itself to coding for differences between individual students. However, the following questions should be addressed during the post-observation meeting:

   Does your curriculum reflect cultural diversity?

   -- Do you review all curricular materials for bias?

   -- Are you familiar with constructive techniques for teaching with biased curricular materials?

   -- Does the curriculum deal with the historical experiences of minority cultures?

   -- Does the curriculum include the study of prejudice, discrimination and exploitation?

Do your instructional activities reflect cultural diversity?

- Do you assign individual or group projects that examine aspects of minority cultures?
- Do you emphasize similarities and differences among ethnic groups in a positive manner?
- Do your instructional materials portray groups honestly, realistically and sensitively?
- Do your instructional goals and strategies reflect different cultural and learning styles of students in your class?
- Do you make an effort to supplement the curriculum so that it contributes to strengthening students' sense of individual identity and aids them in understanding themselves better in light of their own heritage?
- Do you spend time and effort dispelling misconceptions, stereotypes and prejudices that students appear to hold?

Does your room reflect cultural diversity?

- Do your bulletin boards and displays show people of black, Chicano, Puerto Rican, Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese and other backgrounds?
- Do your bulletin boards and displays present diverse cultural artifacts — historical, artistic, musical?
- Do your bulletin boards and displays present information about Asian, African and Latin American as well as European countries?

TEACHER DATA FORM

This form provides supervisors with a record of targeted students. The student data form that follows should be completed for each student listed on this form.

name

school and district

address

job title

subject grade

Targeted Students

Perceived High Achieving Students

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

Perceived Low Achieving Students

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

student's name
race/ ethnic group

STUDENT DATA FORM

name

school and district

address

subject grade
(omit subject for elementary)

teacher's name

race age

Last year's class grades	Semester 1	math	English or language arts	science	reading	social studies	conduct
	Semester 2	math	English or language arts	science	reading	social studies	conduct
Last year's standardized test scores		math	reading	English or language arts			
This year's class grades before training		math	English or language arts	science	reading	social studies	conduct
This year' standardized test scores		math	reading	English or language arts			
This year's class grades after training		math	English or language arts	science	reading	social studies	conduct

Worksheet 10 PEER OBSERVATION FORM: CLIMATE VARIABLES

DATE OF OBSERVATION	PHYSICAL CLOSENESS				COURTESY				PERSONAL INTEREST AND COMPLIMENTS				ACCEPTING FEELINGS			
STUDENT'S NAME STUDENT'S RACE/ETHNIC GROUP	D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**	
LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
WHITE LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
BLACK/HISPANIC LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
WHITE HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
BLACK/HISPANIC HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																

*D - DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

**E - ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

Worksheet 11

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CODING CLIMATE VARIABLES

I. Physical Closeness

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR. . .

- Each time the teacher comes within arm's length of the targeted students.
- If the teacher stays in one place and is within arm's length of more than one targeted student, a mark is coded for each of these students.
- If the teacher stays in one place for a long time, one mark is coded if the teacher is within arm's length of a targeted student.
- If students are working individually or in clusters and the teacher is moving about the room, a mark is coded each time the teacher goes to a targeted student and verbally or non-verbally interacts with him or her.
- If a targeted student has chosen to isolate himself from the class, a mark is coded if the teacher goes to the student even though the student chooses to remain isolated.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- If the teacher avoids physical closeness with the targeted student by removing the student from class interaction.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The proximity is initiated by the student.
- The purpose of the proximity is punishment.
- The teacher passes the student without speaking or touching.
- The teacher fails to come within arm's length of the targeted student.

II. Courtesy

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- If the teacher expresses courtesy by saying phrases such as "thank you" or "excuse me."

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- When the teacher fails to say "thank you" or "excuse me" in appropriate situations.
- When the teacher makes rude or insulting remarks to the student.
- When the teacher uses an expression of courtesy, but in a sarcastic tone or with a facial expression that suggests insincerity.

- If the teacher interrupts while the student is speaking, without apology or explanation.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- Courtesy is not called for.

III. Personal Interest and Compliments

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- When the teacher makes a comment or asks a question related to the targeted student's interest or personal life. For example, "Brenda is interested in computers. Can you share some of your experiences with the class?" or "Bob has been to Texas. Perhaps you would like to react to this story."
- A mark is coded if the teacher asks a question which elicits information about the student's experiences, e.g., "How long have you been interested in antique cars?" or "Darlene, what do you enjoy most about traveling?"
- A mark is coded when the teacher compliments the targeted student for something extraneous to the instructional task, e.g., "You look great," or "You are a terrific football player."

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- When the teacher, in a rude or inconsiderate manner, curtails or belittles a student's attempt to tell about a personal interest or activity.
- If the teacher belittles the student's personal experience or interest.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The teacher misses a chance for a compliment; the teacher may have a reason unknown to the observer for not commenting.
- The teacher suggests another time for the student to share personal experiences after cutting him/her off.

IV. Accepts Feelings

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- When the teacher recognizes the student's feelings and deals with them in a non-evaluative manner.
- When the teacher's intent is to accept or clarify feelings expressed by the student, e.g., "I understand how you feel," or "The music you chose is exciting," or "You are sad because you were not picked for the team."
- In classrooms, when students sometimes express anger towards each other, the teacher tries to accept the feelings of both sides and provide an avenue for solving the problem.

- When teacher behavior expresses an empathetic or accepting attitude toward the feelings of the student. For example, the teacher might put his/her arm around the shoulders of a child or simply nod his/her head with a sympathetic look.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR . . .

- If the teacher discourages or disparages a student's feelings. For example, "There is no reason for you to be upset."
- When a teacher's statement such as "What are you so worried about?" is critical because of the tone, facial expression, body stance, etc.
- If the teacher nonverbally expresses rejection of the student's feelings.
- If the teacher fails to intervene when students are ridiculing the targeted student.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- There is no response to feelings.

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION G

GUIDELINES FOR MONTHLY DEBRIEFING CONFERENCES

Meet monthly with a small group (approximately ten people -- five pairs) of peer observation teams to discuss:

- problems in the observation process
- problems/solutions to coding dilemmas
- teachers' awareness of their encouraging and discouraging behaviors
- difficulties in changing behavioral patterns
- student reactions to changing teacher behavior
- changes in student behavior and academic performance

Remembering that change is slow for both students and teachers, these monthly meetings should help teachers support one another in addressing the issues and problems encountered in both the observation process and in the classroom.

Students will not change immediately. Many will wonder why the teacher is changing his/her behavior. Some will continue to behave in their old ways for a long time. Teachers should not become discouraged. Behavior change takes time.

TRAINING EVALUATION: Units V and VI -- Climate Variables

1. What did you like best about Units V-VI?

2. What did you like least about Units V-VI?

3. Did the self-evaluation process give you greater familiarity with climate variables? If so, how?

4. Discuss any problems you had with the schedule of observations.

5. How did you feel with an observer in the room?

Training Evaluation (continued)

6. Sometimes the frequent use of courtesy brings about changes in students and in classroom atmosphere. Can you see any specific changes?

7. Has deliberate maintainance of physical closeness to students led to changes in your present teaching style and, if so, how?

8. What response(s) have you noticed to your deliberate efforts to accept student feelings?

9. Name one classroom behavior you are doing differently in your classroom as a result of training in Units V-VI.

MID-PROJECT SURVEY OF TEACHER PARTICIPANTS: After Unit VI

	Yes	No
1. Do you think you are benefitting professionally by having the opportunity to observe and code another teacher?	___	___
2. Do you think you are benefitting professionally by having another teacher observe and code you?	___	___
3. To date, do you think there has been any significant positive change in your attitude/feeling toward any of the students you identified as perceived "low" achievers?	___	___
4. At this point in the program, do you feel comfortable about being observed?	___	___
5. Do you think the presence of an observer in the classroom has any negative effect upon the students? Please explain.	___	___
6. Do you think the presence of an observer in the classroom has any positive effect upon the students? Please explain.	___	___

UNIT VII: IDENTIFYING BEHAVIORS THAT PROVIDE ACADEMIC SUPPORT

TEACHING VARIABLES

Unit VII Instructions 1 1/2 hrs + one week for assignment

Objectives

- To identify specific encouraging and discouraging teacher behaviors for **teaching variables**
- To practice behaviors that provide academic support to a targeted student

Activities

1) Review definitions: see Transparency iv, Unit V, p. 97 (10 minutes).

2) Discuss the peer evaluation experience: see Worksheets 9 and 10, Unit VI, pp. 119-121, 127 (15 minutes).

3) Explore specific categories of teaching variables (20 minutes).

Directions: Ask group members to identify one encouraging and one discouraging behavior for the examples listed in the center column of Transparency vi, "Teaching Variables in the Classroom."

4) Mini-lecture/Discussion H: Reviewing the Research on Teaching Variables and Participant Information Sheet II: "Learning Styles/Teaching Styles" and Participant Information Sheet III: "Guidelines for Effective Praise."

5) Identify encouraging and discouraging behaviors for teaching variables: Worksheets 12A and 12B.

Directions: Break the larger group into several smaller groups of five - seven persons. Ask each small group to appoint a facilitator and a recorder. Hand out Worksheet 12A. Tell each group to follow the directions on the worksheet. Have the recorder of each small group report back to the larger group. Hand out Worksheet 12B. Compare answers developed by the group with answers provided on the sheet. Make additions to fit the contributions of the small group activity (30 minutes).

6) Self-evaluation for Teaching Variables: Worksheet 13.

As indicated in earlier units, black students have disproportionately been perceived as low achievers. Teachers can use this self-evaluation as an opportunity to examine their attitudes towards black students.

The teaching self-evaluation form outlines specific behaviors in the domain of academic support. These include:

- teaching/learning styles
- grouping and individual assistance

- instructional time
- praise, affirmation, correction and criticism
- listening
- monitoring student progress

Self-evaluation can be used to raise participants' awareness of selected behavior patterns with targeted students. Before class the teacher selects a student to focus on. During class the teacher notes his/her behavior with the selected student. After class the teacher circles the number on the scale for each item which he/she believes characterizes his/her behavior with the student. A score of 3 or 4 indicates a basically encouraging behavior pattern.

Self-evaluation can be used as a guide for improving interaction skills. Teachers should be asked to use the self-evaluation sheet during a one-week period with four students: two low achievers and two high achievers. Teachers should practice encouraging behaviors with those students and in those areas needing improvement.

To review:

A) The facilitator should:

- Provide teachers with four self-evaluation sheets for teaching variables.
- Encourage teachers to examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students.
- Ask teachers to identify two high achieving students and two low achieving students.
- Allow one week for teachers to complete self-evaluation forms and to practice encouraging interactions.

B) Teachers are asked to:

- Review the self-evaluation sheet prior to class and identify one high achieving student for the first self-evaluation.
- After class fill in the self-evaluation form for the first identified high achieving student.
- Repeat the process for the second high achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
- Identify one low achieving student before class.
- After class, fill in the self-evaluation form for the identified low achieving student.

- Repeat the process for the second low achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
- Review and compare the results of the self-evaluations.
- Identify high and low scoring variables.
- Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students on those variables that you rated 0, 1, or 2.

7) Assignment: Prepare to teach a five minute lesson to colleagues that would allow you to practice the teaching variables. Read Participant Information Sheets II and III.

Materials

1) Transparency iv: Definitions (Unit V, p. 97)

2) Worksheet 9: Guidelines for Peer Observation (Unit VI, pp. 119-121)
Worksheet 10: Peer Observation Form: Climate Variables (Unit VI, p. 127)

3) Transparency vi: Teaching Variables in the Classroom

4) Mini-lecture/Discussion H: Reviewing the Research on Teaching Variables
Participant Information Sheet II: "Learning Styles/Teaching Styles: Should They . . . Can They . . . Be Matched?"
Participant Information Sheet III: "Guidelines for Effective Praise"

5) Worksheet 12A: Teaching Variables in the Classroom
Worksheet 12B: Examples of Teaching Variables in the Classroom

6) Worksheet 13: Self-Evaluation Form for Teaching Variables (four copies for each teacher participating in the training)

Transparency vi

TEACHING VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHING BEHAVIORS WHICH PROVIDE OR WITHHOLD INFORMATION, ASSISTANCE AND ACADEMIC SUPPORT

DISCOURAGING	ENCOURAGING

I. TEACHING/LEARNING STYLES

II. GROUPING AND INDIVIDUAL ASSISTANCE

III. INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

DISCOURAGING	ENCOURAGING

IV. PRAISE, AFFIRMATION, CORRECTION AND CRITICISM

V. LISTENING

VI. MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION H

Reviewing the Research on Teaching Variables

There are many ways teachers can encourage learning opportunities for students. We are now going to review the research findings on a few teaching dimensions.

I. Teaching/Learning Styles

Research indicates that students learn best when teaching styles, learning styles, and physical and environmental factors coincide with student preferences. Dr. Gene Pizo (Tell Me about Learning Styles: Research and Background and Learning Style Instruments, n.d.) found a significant rise in reading scores for sixth grade students when students who preferred sound in the learning environment were taught with music in the background and those that preferred quiet were taught without music.

There is evidence that student preference for sound, light and temperature and other elements affect the learning process. Research (Carbo, 1980) has indicated that reading scores improve when instructional materials are chosen to match student preference for auditory, visual or tactile instruction. Students often have preferences for individual, paired or group instruction, for oral or written communication. Some students are self-motivated and persistent; others need an external motivation and must be taught persistence. Variety among student learning styles requires variety in instructional approaches. Learning styles can be identified through informal observations and interviews or through more formal learning style inventories (for example, the Kolb Learning Style Inventory, Gregorc Profile, Murdock Learning Style Survey, and Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Inventory).

Research (Dunn and Dunn, 1979) indicates that teachers teach the way they learned. They often believe that the way they learned is the "easy" or "right" way and therefore promote this preference for others. It is important for them to recognize their own learning style preference as well as learning style differences among their students. Information is more accessible to the student if it is initially taught in the student's preferred learning style. However, teachers should gradually vary their teaching styles in order to expand the students' ability to receive information in a variety of ways and under varying environmental conditions.

There is some evidence that when majority teachers instruct minority students, learning style differences can cause a gap between what is taught and what is learned. Research indicates that some of the unstructured, open-ended or highly competitive approaches to learning may actually inhibit academic achievement in many minority children because these strategies may be incompatible with the way their cultures approach learning (Beane, 1985). Gilbert and Gay (1985) cite the following general tendencies:

- Many black children have a learning style which is relational and field-dependent. Thus, they tend to function best in a cooperative, informal and loosely structured environment, where students and teachers work closely together to achieve common goals.
- Black students' primary mode of communication is oral and dramatic which creates a barrier since the school's focus is written communication. Black students must convert from the preferred oral mode of communication to written before undertaking a writing task.
- Black children engage themselves entirely in activity often accompanying cognitive involvement with affective and physical. Although this may seem distractive behavior to the teacher, it is a part of the entire process for the student.
- Black children value "efforts" toward achievement, with less emphasis being placed on outcome. Recognition is sought for efforts to complete a task, even if the results were unsuccessful.

See Participant Information Sheet II for additional information on learning styles.

II. Grouping and Individual Assistance

High achievers and average students are often more aggressive in seeking teacher help and consequently get more than their share of the teacher's time (Torrance, 1966). Additionally, teachers often ability-group students. Research indicates that once ability-grouped, teachers pay more attention to and provide more information to high ability group students to the detriment of those students placed in low ability groups (Rist, 1972; Good and Brophy, 1971a; Marshall, 1980). Rigid ability grouping leads to resegregation within schools and has a negative effect on student achievement (Rist, 1970; Harnischfeger and Wiley, 1980; Larkins and Oldham, 1976; National Education Association, 1980; Bridgeman, 1974; Katz et al., 1972; Epps, 1974). Research also indicates that the most effective technique is whole-group or large-group instruction for teaching new concepts and flexible grouping around skill building. It should be noted that the effectiveness of whole—group instruction is increased by the use of techniques such as hand signals suggested by Madeline Hunter (see works by Hunter listed in Categorized Bibliography) which require the participation of all students. It is important that a student not be consistently placed in low ability groups but that he/she is given a chance to be a group leader. Cooperative learning techniques developed by the Center for the Social Organization of Schools at the Johns Hopkins University are helpful to teachers in establishing flexible grouping (Slavin, 1981).

III. Instructional Time

Research overwhelmingly focuses upon the positive relationship between academic learning time and student achievement. Put simply, the more time spent on learning tasks, the higher the academic gain (Ponzio, 1984; Seifert and Beck, 1984; Halasz, 1984). There are numerous training models designed to assist teachers in increasing academically engaged time (Sparks, 1984). There is some indication that the low achievement of some students may be due to the fact that less of their time is academically engaged, either because they are less aggressive in asking for individual help or because teachers' lower expectations translate into less teaching input (Smyth, 1980).

IV. Praise, Affirmation, Correction and Criticism

Research findings on the use of praise (positive feedback), affirmation (confirmation of correct answer) correction (informing a student why his/her answer is incorrect) and criticism (negative feedback) indicate that black students receive less teacher praise and more teacher criticism than do white students (Dunken and Biddle, 1974). Students perceived as high achievers receive more teacher praise, more correction and less criticism than those perceived as low achievers (Good and Brophy, 1971a; Perkins, 1965). This could be because high achievers are given more opportunities to perform. But Good and Brophy reported that this difference held when lows gave a right answer; that is, perceived low achievers were less likely to be praised than perceived high achieving students even when they gave a right answer.

Rosenshine (1971) reports several studies which suggest that correcting an incorrect answer is positively correlated with student gain. However, criticism appears to be related to a lack of student achievement. Research findings suggest that white teachers give significantly more non-verbal criticism to black male students than to white male and female and black female students (Coates 1972; Eaves, 1975; Simpson and Erickson, 1983). Stringer and Hurt (1981) indicate that either praise or correction is more effective in reinforcing student achievement than either criticism or ignoring student performance. Simpson and Erickson (1983) found that white teachers tended to direct more verbal and non-verbal praise and more verbal correction toward white males and more non-verbal criticism toward black males. David and Myra Sadker (1985) found that teachers were more likely to say "O.K." to black students then to white students, whether or not their answer was correct, thus leaving the black student with little information about the quality of his or her performance.

Teachers more often provide correction if the answer the student gives is erroneous or inappropriate and are less likely to provide specific indications of what the student is doing well when praising. Most contemporary researchers agree that specific and concrete praise is the most effective. Teachers should give reasons when giving praise. Praise that is not specific and/or is insincere can be seen as patronizing and have a negative effect; and if an answer is incorrect the teacher should provide the student with the correct information in a noncritical manner. (See Participant Information Sheet III: "Guidelines for Effective Praise.")

V. Listening

Gordon (1970) emphasizes the importance of active listening in the reduction of disciplinary problems. Jackson (1968), in a study about the extent to which teachers were able to predict the feelings of individual students, found that teachers were significantly more accurate in predicting the feelings of children with high IQ's than children with low IQ's. One might infer from this study that teachers were listening more closely to higher IQ students. The student who is perceived to be a low achiever volunteers less frequently and is usually offered fewer response opportunities than other children. Consequently, he/she is listened to less often than other students (Horn, 1914). There is some evidence that teachers tend to accept unsolicited responses from perceived high achieving students while condemning perceived low achieving students for inappropriate behavior. Brown et al. (1981) present teacher training programs for effective listening.

VI. Monitoring Student Progress

There are a variety of uses for evaluations of students' progress. Some of them are extremely encouraging and others, extremely discouraging. Students can be tested in order to track or ability group them, often using evaluations to exclude students from access to experiences, courses and programs that are necessary for their future success in school and in work. On the other hand, student evaluations can be used as diagnostic tools to monitor student progress. The literature on effective schools emphasizes teaching outcomes (Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985). That is, what is important is not just what teachers teach but what students learn. Evaluating student progress through a variety of testing and non-testing techniques (including parent, student and teacher recommendations; classroom responses, and classroom and homework assignments) provides teachers with information about what students are learning and thus tells teachers whether or not they need to provide more and/or different teaching experiences to some or all students. It is not uncommon for teachers to unwittingly monitor some students in a constructive diagnostic manner and monitor others in a punitive manner.

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Participant Information Sheet II

Learning Styles/Teaching Styles: Should They . . . Can They . . . Be Matched?

After more than a decade of continuing research, we are convinced that one reason for the variety of theories concerned with how students achieve academically is that each contributes only partial insight into the learning process and that none provides a totally accurate explanation of how individuals gain and retain knowledge.

Not only do people of all ages and intellectual capacities learn in ways that differ dramatically, but certain students achieve *only* through selected methods—methods that frequently fail to produce academic results for others. This is common knowledge among many experienced, sensitive instructors who nevertheless continue to teach the identical lesson to an entire class at the same time and in the same way, eventually requiring a demonstration of mastery at the same hour.

By experimenting with innovative strategies intended to help students learn who formerly had not been successful, we found that most methods and/or resources appeared to work with some students but not with others. That insight led to studies of those youngsters who tended to achieve through specific strategies—and why.[1] Eventually we recognized that, in many cases, those who were successful with a particular method or set of materials had essentially similar characteristics.

Repeatedly our data revealed that, when taught through methods that complemented their learning characteristics, students at all levels became increasingly motivated and achieved better academically. Although authors use different terms to describe student traits, they tend to agree on the basic elements that constitute one's "learning style."

The 18 Elements of Learning Style[2]— The Environmental Elements: Sound, Light, Temperature, and Design

Based on observations, interviews, and experimental studies conducted since 1967, it has become apparent that regardless of their age, ability, socioeconomic status, or achievement level, individuals respond uniquely to their immediate environment. Some require absolute silence when they are concentrating, while others can "block out" sound. In addition, there is a segment of the population who actually *require* sound when they are trying to learn; they invariably turn on the radio or phonograph whenever they are attempting to absorb information they wish to retain.

People also respond differently to temperature; some require a cool environment to concentrate while others are more productive when they feel comfortably warm. We know, however, that heat and cold are relative, and that individuals describe temperature in terms of their personal reactions to it.

Learners also respond differently to the amount of light available; some "think better" in softly lit areas whereas others become sleepy unless the illumination is bright, and thus stimulating. However, what is "dull" for some is "bright" for others, and certain students respond to excessive light by becoming hyperactive.

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[1] Rita S. Dunn and Alonzo H. Shockley, Jr. *Better Education Through Community Involvement*. New York: Freeport Public Schools, pursuant to a U.S. Office of Health, Education and Welfare grant under the auspices of the New York State Education Department, 1970; *That A Child May Reach: Expanded Education in Freeport*. New York: Freeport Public Schools, under the auspices of the New York State Education Department, 1971.

Finally, despite the traditional versus the open classroom controversy, we also know that some youngsters achieve better in an informal physical environment (carpeting, lounge chairs, couch, or bed) whereas others learn more easily in a formal setting (desks, library tables, "hard" chairs).

We lack sufficient research data to add two additional elements that may affect how students' environments affect their ability to learn, but studies are being conducted to determine if weather—or, perhaps, barometric pressure—and color (which may be related to light) should be included as environmental elements of learning style.

The Emotional Elements: Motivation, Persistence, Responsibility, and a Need for Structure

Most teachers will say that youngsters who are not motivated, persistent, or responsible should be taught differently from those who are. Despite that, however, observations verify that teachers *do* try to teach both groups in exactly the same way.

Motivated, persistent, responsible people need to be told what they are required to learn (their "objectives" or tasks), what they may use as resources, how they may demonstrate their acquired knowledge or skill, and where to get help if it is needed. They welcome praise and feedback when the assignment has been completed. The unmotivated—those who are not persistent and/or the less responsible students—require short assignments or very few objectives, frequent feedback, a great deal of supervision, and authentic praise *as they are working*.

Structure is a vital element of learning style. Youngsters who require specific directions, sequential tasks, frequent feedback, and continuing support usually achieve well using programmed learning—if they are highly visual or visual-tactual and able to work alone. If they are tactual-kinesthetic and also peer-oriented, programmed material may not hold their attention. If they need structure, are tactual-kinesthetic (but not highly auditory or visual), and find learning difficult, they may do better with multisensory instructional packages.

Students who tend to be creative, self-structured, or responsive to making choices, appear to perform best with Contract Activity Packages—although teachers experienced in the effective use of CAPS can decrease the amount of flexibility and the number of options provided, thus making contracts suitable for youngsters who require imposed structure.

The Sociological Elements: Working Alone, With Peers, With an Adult, or Some Combination

How students respond to other people also contributes to the selection of a method through which they are likely to achieve. Some work and learn best alone; they are distracted by the presence, movements, or sounds of others. For these, depending on whether or not they need structure and whether they are auditory, visual, tactual, or kinesthetic, a Contract Activity Package, a program, an instructional package, or various tactual-kinesthetic resources (task cards, learning circles, or electroboards) should be prescribed.

Other youngsters achieve best when among their peers; for them, Circles of Knowledge, team learnings, case studies, brainstorming exercises, and other small-group techniques tend to facilitate learning.

Students who require interaction with an adult will profit from discussions, lectures, or teacher-directed studies—although it is necessary to determine whether the relationship that is sought is authoritarian or collegial before suggesting whether large or small groups would be more effective. Many youngsters can gain knowledge in a variety of sociological patterns, but some can function only when permitted to learn through specific relationships.

The Physical Elements: Perceptual Strengths, Intake, Time of Day, and Need For Mobility

Years ago, when researchers tested only for visual or auditory preferences, it was thought that approximately half of our population learned through one sense and half through the other. During the past few years we have found that only between 20 and 30 percent of school age

[2] Rita Dunn and Kenneth Dunn. *Teaching Students Through Their Individual Learning Styles: A Practical Approach*. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, division of Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978. pp. 5-17.

youngsters appear to be auditory; that is, they learn and remember what they hear. Approximately 40 percent are visual, with the remaining 30 to 40 percent being either tactual/kinesthetic, visual/tactual, or some combination of these four major senses. If it is true that 90 percent of all instruction is conducted through either lecture or lecture-discussion, it is no wonder that so few students achieve as well as we believe they should. Apparently motivation can overcome perceptual weaknesses, but it is not the motivated youngsters with whom teachers are having problems.

A need to eat, drink, nibble, chew, or smoke when studying, concentrating, or trying to internalize, is also part of how some people learn, as is the time of day when one's energy is at a peak. Another element that either permits or inhibits learning is the ability to remain stationary for longer or shorter periods of time. We mistakenly label some students "hyperactive" when they are either light-sensitive or require a great deal of mobility; many of those youngsters can learn well when permitted to take frequent "breaks" or are assigned tasks which require them to move from area to area.

In 1974, after six years of continuously testing and revising developing instruments, we began using the *Learning Style Inventory* (LSI)[3] to identify individual students' learning preferences; it, however, is reliable and valid only for grades 3-12. During the past two years we have been testing an adult version—the Productivity Environmental Preference Scale (PEPS)—and also have been involved in developing and testing an early childhood version with graduate students at St. John's University, New York.

How Teachers Teach

For decades, supervisors have been evaluating faculty in an effort to isolate those characteristics that produce effective instruction. Their efforts have been misdirected by weaknesses both in their assumptions and their basic designs.[4] Those deficiencies include:

- Difficulties in accurately identifying common, positive characteristics of teacher personality and style;
- Difficulties in obtaining objective interpretations of what is observed;
- Incorrect assumptions about what ought to be measured when observing classroom instruction;
- The use of instruments that are designed to measure inappropriate aspects of the teaching-learning process;
- A lack of understanding that teachers may be knowledgeable, charismatic, dramatic, hard-working, caring, and dedicated, and still not be effective with students whose learning styles are not complemented by their teaching styles.

There is a commonly ascribed-to belief that, "Teachers teach the way they were taught." A more accurate statement would be, "Teachers teach the way they learned." In our investigations into individual teaching styles, we found that instructors believe that the way they learn is the "easy" or "right" way, and that they therefore direct their students, offsprings, and spouses toward mastering knowledge in much the same manner.

"Teaching style" thus tends to correspond to how each person learned, which partially explains why some teachers are traditional instructors and others are informal ones. Although one's style may be ingrained and difficult to modify, it *can* be expanded to respond to varied learning styles—provided the instructor understands *why* one teaching style cannot be effective with all students and strives to acquire additional skills.

The Nine Elements of Teaching Style[5]

The attitudes teachers hold toward various instructional programs, methods, and resources as well as the kinds of youngsters they prefer working with constitute part of their "teaching style." It is true, however, that some teachers believe in specific forms of instruction that they do not practice (administrative constraints, inexperience, lack of resources, or insecurity) and that others practice methods in which they do not believe (administrative or community mandates, in-

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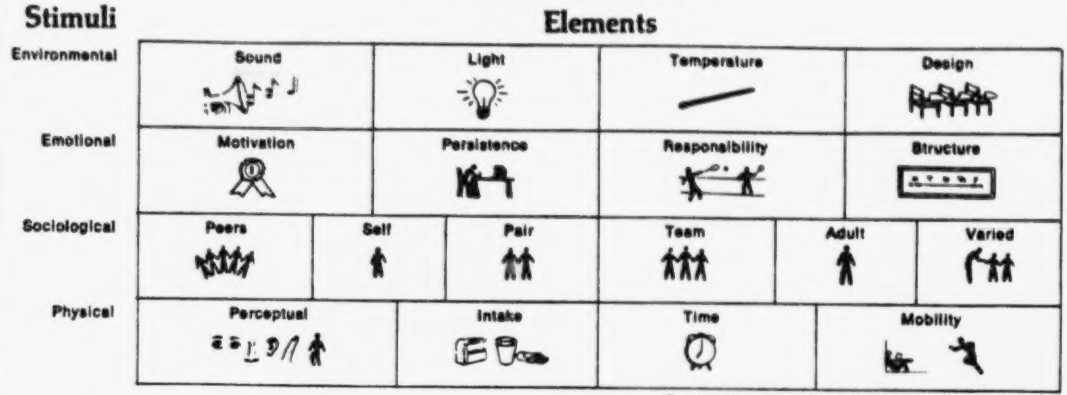
[3] For information concerning the LSI, write to: Price Systems, P.O. Box 3271, Lawrence, Kansas 66044.

[4] Rita Dunn and Kenneth Dunn. *Administrator's Guide to New Programs for Faculty Management and Evaluation.* West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, division of Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977. chapters 5 and 6.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 75-87.

Figure 1. Diagnosing Learning Style



Designed by Dr. Rita S. Dunn, Dr. Kenneth J. Dunn

ability to change or to withstand pressures). It is also true that teachers may prefer students different from those they are actually teaching. These two elements ("educational philosophy" and "student preferences") are not observable and cannot be objectively assessed.

"Instructional planning" encompasses the diagnoses, prescriptions, and evaluations completed for students or groups of students and can be evaluated objectively through classroom observations or examination of records, student assignments, and student work. Another element, "student groupings" (how a teacher permits learning to occur sociologically), is also observable. "Room design" reflects the ways in which the teacher uses instructional areas to match the learning needs of students. That, too, is observable and can be rated against clearly stated criteria.

"Teaching environment" is an element that indicates how instruction is scheduled, the number and kinds of options available to students who can cope with them, and the provisions made for mobility and multilevel resources when they are needed. "Teaching characteristics" refers to the values and standards a teacher holds as observed through the operational approaches used to transmit them. Examples include the teacher's degree of flexibility, perceptions of the importance of what and how much is taught and/or learned, and the amount of direction and supervision provided to students.

The "teaching methods" and the "evaluation techniques" used to instruct and then to determine student achievement constitute the final elements and they, too, are observable.

Teachers can assess themselves with a simple-to-administer-and-score instrument[6] that simultaneously identifies their teaching style and reveals the areas that need to be expanded to respond to additional student characteristics.

How Teachers Can Adapt to Different Learning Styles

Extensive observations and research verify significant improvement in both student achievement and motivation when learning and teaching styles are matched.[7] For that reason, supervisors will want to help their staffs to assess how each youngster learns most easily and then to do two things: (a) match instructional resources (which are a form of teaching) with identified student characteristics; and (b) gradually expand their present modes of operation to help students who have not responded to traditional strategies.

Consider, for example, teachers whose current teaching methods include, for the most part, whole-class lectures and discussions. They can be shown how to use selected small-group techniques[8] like "circles of knowledge" or "team learning" for those students who (a) like to work with other classmates; (b) strain in their seats when required to sit and listen; (c) appear not to remember what has been taught; or (d) may have difficulty paying attention at the time of day the lesson is scheduled. Teachers then may teach just as they always have—but to a smaller group, while those others work quietly in groups of three to five in far corners of the room. Gifted, self-motivated, responsible, and persistent individuals may prefer working alone—and should be permitted to do so away from both the larger group involved with the teacher and the smaller groups of classmates. If teachers are willing to use a seven-step process that develops independence skills and facilitates the management process,[9]

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[6] *Ibid.*, pp. 75-87.

[7] Beatrice J. Farr. "Individual Differences in Learning: Predicting One's More Effective Learning Modality." Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, July 1971, 1332A. An experiment with 72 college students confirmed that individuals could accurately predict the modality in which they could demonstrate superior learning performance. The data also revealed that it is advantageous to learn and be tested in the same modality and that such an advantage is reduced when learning and testing are both conducted in an individual's nonpreferred modality. The most desirable conditions existed when learning and testing were both in the student's preferred modality. See also: George Domino. "Interactive Effects of Achievement Orientation and Teaching Style on Academic Achievement." *ACT Research Report* 39: 1-9; 1970. One hundred students were grouped in accordance with their perceptions of how they learned. Some of the groups were then taught in a manner consonant with their perceived learning style (achievement orientation) while others were taught in a manner dissonant with their orientation. The testing data revealed that the students who had been exposed to a teaching style consonant with the ways they believed they learned scored higher on tests, fact knowledge, attitude, and efficiency of work than those who had been taught in a manner dissonant with their orientation. For data concerning elementary school students, see also: Rita Dunn. "Another Look at Individualized Instruction." *Kappan* 59(6): 400-02; February 1978; and "Individualizing Instruction Through Contracts—Does It Work With Very Young Children?" *Audiovisual Instruction* 16(3): 78-80; March 1971.

[8] Dunn and Dunn, *op. cit.*, chapter 3.

[9] Rita Dunn and Kenneth Dunn. *Educator's Self-Teaching Guide to Individualizing Instructional Programs.* West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, division of Prentice-Hall, 1975. chapter 2.

Figure 2.*

Method or Resource	Learning Style Characteristics to Which It Responds	Learning Style Characteristics to Which It Does Not Respond	Learning Style Characteristics to Which It Can Be Accommodated
1. Programmed learning	Motivation, persistence, responsibility, and a need for structure; a need to work alone, a visually-oriented student.	A lack of motivation, persistence, or responsibility; a need for flexibility or creativity; a need to work with peers or adults; auditory, tactual, or kinesthetic perceptual strengths.	Sound, light, temperature, and design; a need for intake, appropriate time of day, and a need for mobility.
Note: When programmed learning sequences are accompanied by tapes, they will appeal to auditory learners; when they include films or filmstrips, they will reinforce the visually-oriented student; when teachers design small-group techniques such as team learning, circle of knowledge, or brainstorming, peer-oriented students may develop an ability to use programs more effectively than if they use them exclusively as individual learners.			
2. Contract activity packages	A need for sound and an informal design; motivation, persistence, and responsibility; a need to work either alone, with a friend or two, or with an adult, all perceptual strengths and weaknesses and the need for mobility.	None	Sound, light, temperature, and design; motivation, persistence, responsibility; sociological needs; perceptual strengths, intake, time of day, and the need for mobility.
Note: Contract activity packages respond to all learning style characteristics provided that (1) they are used correctly, and (2) multisensory resources are developed as part of them.			
3. Instructional packages	A need for sound or structure; a need to work alone; all perceptual strengths.	A lack of responsibility; a need for peer or adult interactions.	Light, temperature, and design; motivation, persistence; intake, time of day, and mobility.
Note: Because of their multisensory activities, instructional packages are very effective with slow learners. Unless the curriculum is extremely challenging, they may be boring to high achievers.			
4. Task cards and learning circles	Motivation, persistence, responsibility, and the need for structure; visual or tactual strengths.	A lack of motivation persistence, responsibility, or a need for structure; auditory or kinesthetic strengths; a need for mobility.	Sound, light, temperature, and design; the need to work alone, with peers, or an adult; intake and time of day.
5. Tapes, audio cassettes	A need for sound; motivation, persistence, responsibility, and a need for structure; a need to work alone; auditory strengths.	A need for silence; a need to work with peers or an adult; visual, tactual, or kinesthetic strengths, and a need for mobility.	Light, temperature, and design; intake and time of day.

*Rita Dunn and Kenneth Dunn. *Teaching Students Through Their Individual Learning Styles; A Practical Approach*. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, division of Prentice-Hall, 1978. p. 23.

they will find that this system promotes learning, decreases tension, and permits youngsters to achieve more easily.

Is This Realistic?

Newcomers to the concept of learning style are sometimes overwhelmed by the listing of 18 elements that may affect students to varying degrees—but they need not be. Most of the elements can be accommodated easily by developing students' awareness of their own styles, permitting some flexibility, and then gradually developing the types of resources that complement learning styles that appear not to flourish in a conventional instructional setting.

Rules and standards of behavior should be established, and youngsters should be required to exercise self-discipline, but most young people can be taught to become independent and responsible while in an instructional setting.[10] It is precisely those students who are most difficult and who absorb most of our attention whose learning styles do not match the kind of instruction to which they are being exposed—and who most need the organized, sensitive matching of their learning characteristics with an appropriate teaching style.

The environmental elements of learning style and the need for mobility can be accommodated by any teacher—regardless of teaching style, as long as the phenomena are understood, and the teacher is willing to permit some flexibility. Nor is it difficult to respond to the sociological differences manifested in most classrooms: teacher or adult-oriented students work directly with the teacher; peer-oriented students (those who will really work that way) use small group techniques to learn the same materials; self-motivated students (usually the very bright, sometimes the slow but motivated, often the tactual-kinesthetic) may study alone with appropriate resources.

A student's perceptual strengths and weaknesses are extremely important, for no matter how motivated a youngster *might* be, inability to absorb and retain through an inappropriate sense tends to dampen motivation and, certainly, inhibits achievement. However, once a student's perceptual inclinations are recognized, all the teacher needs to do is assign the appropriate resource and permit grouping through a complementary sociological pattern.

Time of day, too, is important, but if a student isn't capable of learning when the lesson has been planned, perhaps he can learn the material at another time through another resource. For example, will the teacher tape record the actual lesson as it occurs (interruptions, questions, and all!) and permit the student (and those who were absent or unable to understand it entirely) to borrow the cassette? Can the student learn the essentials of the lesson through a filmstrip? a book? or an interview?

The emotional elements are also crucial, but, as indicated in the first section, they can be dealt with knowledgeably and effectively by teachers who are willing to move a bit along the teaching style continuum so that they begin to respond to many more individual differences than they do currently.

Why Not Just Match Teachers With Students?

It is easy to suggest that students in need of an informal physical environment, opportunities to choose among options, working with peers and/or alone, intake, and mobility should be assigned to one kind of teacher; whereas, those in need of a formal environment, who are adult-oriented, who are motivated, persistent, responsible, and in need of structure, and who are not in need of mobility should be assigned to another kind of teacher. The fallacy is this: (a) learning style and teaching style characteristics do not always cluster into such neat packages; (b) students are not consistently one way or the other—nor are teachers; (c) neither traditional nor informal teachers are necessarily excellent, and it is possible to match a student's learning style and a teacher's teaching style and still not provide that youngster with an effective teacher; and (d) given the practical, "how-to" skills for teaching students through their individual learning styles, most teachers can become effective with most students and, simultaneously, provide a humanistic, caring, nurturing atmosphere. And, after all, isn't that what professional teaching should be?

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[10] *Ibid.*, chapter 5.

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Participant Information Sheet III

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE PRAISE

Ineffective Praise	Effective Praise
1. is delivered randomly or unsystematically	1. is delivered contingently
2. is restricted to global positive reactions	2. specifies the particulars of the accomplishment
3. shows a bland uniformity which suggests a conditioned response made with minimal attention	3. shows spontaneity, variety, and other signs of credibility; suggests clear attention to the student's accomplishments
4. rewards more participation, without consideration of performance, processes or outcome	4. rewards attainment of specified performance criteria (which can include effort criteria)
5. provides no information at all or merely assigns a grade	5. provides information to students about their competence or the value of their accomplishments
6. orients students toward comparing themselves with others and thinking about competing	6. orients students toward better appreciation of their own task-related behavior and thinking about problem solving
7. uses the accomplishments of peers as the context for describing students' present accomplishments	7. uses students' own prior accomplishments as the context for describing present accomplishments
8. is given without regard to the effort expended or the meaning of the accomplishment (for this student)	8. is given in recognition of noteworthy effort or success at difficult (for this student) tasks
9. attributes success to ability alone or to external factors such as luck or (easy) task difficulty	9. attributes success to effort and ability, implying that similar successes can be expected in the future
10. fosters exogenous attributions (students believe that they expend effort on the task for external reasons -- to please the teacher, win a competition or reward, etc.)	10. fosters endogenous attributions (students believe that they expend effort on the task because they enjoy the task and/or want to develop task-relevant skills)

11. focuses students' attention on the teacher as an external authority figure who is manipulating them	11. focuses students' attention on own task-relevant behavior
12. intrudes into the ongoing process, distracting attention from task-relevant behavior	12. fosters appreciation of, and desirable attributions about, task-relevant behavior after the process is completed

Jere E. Brophy, "Teacher Praise: A Functional Analysis", Review of Educational Research 51 (Spring 1981). Reprinted with permission.

Worksheet 12A

TEACHING VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHING BEHAVIORS WHICH PROVIDE OR WITHHOLD INFORMATION, ASSISTANCE AND ACADEMIC SUPPORT

For each category below, list three examples of encouraging and discouraging teacher behaviors that demonstrate positive and negative expectations, respectively, in classroom interactions.

Categories

Discouraging	Encouraging

I. Teaching/Learning Styles

1.

2.

3.

II. Grouping and Individual Assistance

1.

2.

3.

Worksheet 12A (continued)

Discouraging **Encouraging**

III. Instructional Time

1. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

2. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

3. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

IV. Praise, Affirmation, Correction and Criticism

Example

Gives general or insincere praise	Gives specific reasons for praising student's learning performance

1. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

2. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

3. ______________________________ ______________________________

______________________________ ______________________________

Worksheet 12A (continued)

Discouraging		Encouraging

V. Listening

Example

	Discouraging	Encouraging
	Is inattentive	Listens attentively to student
1.	______________________	______________________
	______________________	______________________
2.	______________________	______________________
	______________________	______________________
3.	______________________	______________________

VI. Monitoring Student Progress

	Discouraging	Encouraging
1.	______________________	______________________
	______________________	______________________
2.	______________________	______________________
	______________________	______________________
3.	______________________	______________________
	______________________	______________________

Worksheet 12B

EXAMPLES OF TEACHING VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH PROVIDE OR WITHHOLD INFORMATION, ASSISTANCE AND ACADEMIC SUPPORT

Discouraging	Encouraging
I. Teaching/Learning Styles	
Provides one predominant type of learning experience	Provides a variety of learning experiences
II. Grouping and Individual Assistance	
Ability groups students	Provides whole group instruction and encourages student cooperation
Provides individual assistance only to those students who ask for it	Provides individual assistance to students that need additional help
III. Instructional Time	
Allows too much time for non-academic activities	Encourages students to concentrate efforts on academic tasks
IV. Praise, Affirmation, Correction and Criticism	
Does not provide praise for positive performance	Praises student's positive learning performance
Gives insincere praise	Only praises when there is something to praise
Gives general praise	Gives specific reasons for praising student's learning performance
Criticizes or ignores students who provide incorrect answers	Provides students with additional and correct information if their response is inaccurate or incorrect
Does not react or comment after student's response	Affirms or corrects student's performance with a meaningful comment
Ignores inappropriate response	Corrects a student's inappropriate response
Criticizes or goes beyond simply correcting student	Provides correct information to student when response is incorrect
Is sarcastic toward student	Is helpful to student

V. Listening

Is inattentive	Listens attentively to student
Fails to maintain eye contact or look at student	Maintains eye contact with student
Erases board or corrects papers when student is talking	Focuses attention on student when he/she is talking

VI. Monitoring Student Progress

Uses testing to track and exclude student	Uses tests and other evaluation techniques to monitor student progress
Provides only grades to students as an indicator of progress	Provides continuous and specific feedback to students about their progress

Worksheet 13

SELF-EVALUATION FORM

HOW I INTERACT WITH A STUDENT: TEACHING VARIABLES

Student's Name ______________________________

Instructions

Identify two low and two high achieving students. Complete a separate form for each of the four identified students during a one-week period.

During one class, note your behavior with the student whose name you have placed above. After class circle the number on the scale for each item which you believe characterizes your behavior with the student. A score of 3 or 4 indicates basically encouraging behavior while a score of 1 or 0 indicates a basically discouraging behavior pattern. At the end of one week, compare the scores to see if there is a pattern of difference between your behavior toward high achieving students and low achieving students. Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in those areas needing improvement.

	Discouraging Interactions		Encouraging Interactions
1.	I provide only one type of learning experience.	0 1 2 3 4	I provide a variety of learning experiences to account for a variety of learning styles
2.	I ignore this student's needs, requests, or signals for individual help.	0 1 2 3 4	I provide this student with individual assignments.
3.	I do not take the time for individual conversations with this student.	0 1 2 3 4	I initiate public and private conversations with this student.
4.	I provide discouraging criticism if the student's answer is inadequate or incorrect.	0 1 2 3 4	I provide the student with additional and correct information if the response is inadequate or incorrect.
5.	I give insincere praise, fail to give praise or use sarcasm.	0 1 2 3 4	I give specific reasons for praising the student's learning performance.
6.	I do not encourage this student's participation.	0 1 2 3 4	I provide instruction in a way that encourages this student to participate.

Worksheet 13 (continued)

7.	I do not listen attentively to this student.	0 1 2 3 4	I listen attentively to this student.
8.	I allow this student too much time for non-academic pursuits.	0 1 2 3 4	I encourage this student to spend his or her time engaged in academic tasks.
9.	I use only tests to evaluate student progress.	0 1 2 3 4	I use a variety of evaluation procedures and provide students with continuous feedback about their performance.

UNIT VIII: PROVIDING ACADEMIC SUPPORT FOR SELECTED STUDENTS

Unit VIII Instructions 2 3/4 hrs + one month between units

Objective

- To practice behaviors that provide academic support for selected students

Activities

1) Review assignment on Self-Evaluation for Teaching Variables: Worksheet 13, Unit VII, pp. 175, 177 and discuss outcomes of the intervention. Were there any differences in your behavior toward high and low achieving students; black, Hispanic and white students? Discuss success and/or problems in practicing encouraging interventions. (15 minutes).

2) Review Worksheet 14 (the first part, "The Peer Observation Process") and Worksheet 15: Instructions for Coding Teaching Variables (30 minutes).

3) Coding Teaching Variables: The facilitator teaches a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (participants in the workshop, four labeled high achievers and four labeled low achievers). The rest of the participants practice coding the facilitator's teaching on teaching variables; Worksheet 15 and Worksheet 16 (presentation and discussion -- 40 minutes).

4) Ask for two volunteers to each present a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (four participants who have been labeled low achievers and four participants who have been labeled high achievers). Have participants practice coding teaching variables and discuss the results. Repeat with the second five-minute lesson; Worksheet 15 and Worksheet 16 (35 minutes).

5) Initiate and schedule a peer-observation process to review behavior on teaching variables: Worksheet 14 (30 minutes).

   The procedures include pre-observation directions listed below, the peer observation process itself outlined on p. 181, and the post-observation meeting outlined on pp. 182-183.

   - Review Guidelines for Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting, and Instructions for Coding Teaching Variables; Worksheets 14 and 15.
   - Establish teacher-peer teams. (Allow teachers to choose their own partner.)
   - Allow four weeks for teacher-peer teams to observe and evaluate each other.
   - Each teacher should be observed and evaluated four times in the four-week period.

- The teacher who is being observed decides which eight students (four high achieving and four low achieving students) are to be targeted for observations. We reiterate the importance of having teachers examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students. We strongly recommend that teachers choose the same eight students for all peer observation throughout this manual.
- Provide the observers with an outline of the lesson used for observation, as well as a seating chart.
- Schedule a bi-weekly post-observation conference for observer and observed to analyze results of observations.
    - Compare the encouraging and discouraging scores of high and low achievers.
    - Note than an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.
- Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in areas of identified need.

6) Schedule monthly meetings with small groups of peer observation teams (10 minutes).

- Establish a schedule for you, the supervisor, to meet with small groups of peer observation teams to discuss progress and problems in addressing teaching variables with identified students.
- Have teachers keep you informed about the low achieving students they have identified and the progress that has been made.

7) Evaluation of Training for Units VII-VIII. Have the participants evaluate the training thus far.

Materials

1) Worksheet 13: Self-Evaluation for Teaching Variables (Unit VII, pp. 175, 177)
2) Worksheet 14: Guidelines for Peer Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting
3) Worksheet 15: Instructions for Coding Teaching Variables
4) Worksheet 16: Peer Evaluation Form: Teaching Variables
5) Mini-lecture/Discussion G: Guidelines for Monthly Debriefing Conference (See Unit VI, p. 133)
6) Training Evaluation: Units VII-VIII — Teaching Variables

WORKSHEET 14

GUIDELINES FOR PEER OBSERVATION
AND SUGGESTIONS FOR POST-OBSERVATION MEETING

The Peer Observation Process

1. Use one observation sheet for each observation. The observation should last a minimum of one-half hour.

2. Observe teacher student interactions with four low achieving students and four high achieving students selected by the teacher being observed and named on the left hand side of the sheet.

3. Selected students should be identified by a seating chart provided to the observer before the observation begins. A lesson outline should be provided.

Tallying

4. When observing the variables outlined on the top of each of your observation sheets, put a small vertical mark in the encouraging side of each identified variable when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly encouraging and a small vertical mark in the discouraging box when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly discouraging. For example, on the climate sheet (looking at the category of physical closeness), if the teacher moves within an arm's length of the student, make a tally mark in the encouraging box; if the teacher removes the student from class interaction, record a tally mark in the discouraging box. See Instructions for Coding Teaching Variables, Worksheet 15.

5. Total the tally marks in each column and figure the percentage of tallies for perceived high achieving students and perceived low achieving students for white students and black/Hispanic students for each variable. Calculate the percentages as follows:

   -- % encouraging perceived low achievers (For example, 8 tallies in the column out of 32 tallies total in that category = 25%.)
   -- % discouraging perceived low achievers
   -- % encouraging perceived high achievers
   -- % discouraging perceived high achievers
   -- % encouraging white students
   -- % discouraging white students
   -- % encouraging black/Hispanic students
   -- % discouraging black/Hispanic students

6. For each variable, compare the total number of encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted low achieving students with encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted high achieving students. Make similar comparisons regarding the discouraging behaviors for each variable as well as similar comparisons between students based on their racial or ethnic group. Note that an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.

Worksheet 14 (continued)

The Post-Observation Meeting

7. Hold a post-observation meeting as close to observation as possible. Discuss the following questions during the post-observation meeting:

How many black and Hispanic students were chosen as high achievers?

How many black and Hispanic students were chosen as low achievers?

What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived low-achieving students for your totals for grouping and individual assistance, instructional time; praise, affirmation, correction and criticism; and listening?

What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

What behaviors communicate these messages to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

Examine your race/ethnic group totals. Were there any differences in behavior demonstrated toward black and Hispanic students vs. white students? What kinds of messages are being communicated to each group?

What kinds of behavior changes are appropriate for you to make for each of your variables?

8) Some variables do not lend themselves to coding for differences between individual students. For these variables-- teaching/learning styles and monitoring student progress -- the following questions should be discussed during the post-observation meeting:

Teaching/Learning Styles

A) Are you aware of your own learning style preferences?

Are you:

. . . a concrete learner or an abstract learner?

. . . an active learner or a reflective learner?

. . . a random learner or a sequential learner?

. . . a group learner or an individual learner?

. . . a written learner or an oral learner?

Worksheet 14 (continued)

B) Are you aware of your own environmental, physical and perceptual preferences for learning?

- visual
- tactile -- kinetic
- auditory
- time of day
- lighting
- sound
- temperature
- structured vs. unstructured learning

C) Have you made a deliberate effort to vary environmental factors and teaching techniques when you use whole group instruction?

D) Have you made a deliberate effort to choose instructional materials and instructional activities which match a variety of learning style preferences?

E) Have you used informal techniques (observations, interviews) or formal learning style inventories (Kolb Learning Style Inventory, Gregorc Profile, Murdock Learning Style Inventory or Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Inventory) to identify the learning style preferences of your students?

F) To assist an individual underachieving student, have you tried to alter your teaching style to match his/her identified preferences in order to begin the process of improving that student's achievement?

Monitoring Student Progress

A) Are your educational decisions based upon student profiles that include parent and student recommendations as well as classroom tests, grades and interest inventories?

B) Do you use test results as a diagnostic tool that has an effect on what and how to teach?

C) Do you provide students with information about the purpose of each test?

D) Do you train your students in test-taking skills?

E) Have you identified alternatives for testing students of limited English proficiency?

F) Do you use mixed ability groups as well as ability groups, and encourage movement from one group to another?

G) Do you follow up when you see inconsistencies in student performance, e.g., a student who does well in class but does poorly on standardized tests, or vice versa, or the student proficient in oral communication who has deficiencies in writing skills?

Worksheet 15

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CODING TEACHING VARIABLES

I. Grouping and Individual Assistance

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN. . .

- There is evidence of whole group instruction and/or flexible grouping.
- The teacher gives individual assistance to a student.
- The teacher's help may or may not be solicited by the student.
- One mark is coded whether the individual help is extensive (five minutes or more duration) or perfunctory (a brief comment). The length of the helping time does not necessarily correspond to the quality of the help.
- Perfunctory help can be nonverbal. For example, a teacher sometimes points to an error, and smiles or nods when the student makes the correction. A mark should be coded.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher ignores the student's attempt to obtain the teacher's help.
- If a student approaches the teacher asking for help and is told to take a seat in a discourteous or disrespectful manner. However, if the teacher cannot help the student at that time and postpones the helping, a discouraging is not recorded; when the help is provided, a mark for encouraging teacher behavior should be coded.
- The student is always grouped with the same students.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- Help is provided by someone other than the teacher.
- The teacher postpones helping the student for obviously legitimate reasons.

II. Instructional Time

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher structures both the lesson and individual student interaction to maintain time on task.

Worksheet 15 (continued)

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher fails to concentrate on academic issues during whole-group instruction.
- The teacher allows some groups of students to engage in non-academic activities.

III. Praise, Affirmation, Correction and Criticism

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher praises the student's learning performance and gives a specific reason for the praise. The teacher specifies what is praiseworthy about the student's school work. Rather than making a general comment like "Terrific" or "Great," the teacher might say "I like the way you compared the political situation in the 1930's with more contemporary research."
- Praise goes beyond mere acceptance to express pleasure in or enthusiasm for the student's performance of activities related to class objectives.
- The teacher praises a student's answer to a question, a report, written work, contribution to a discussion, etc. We are concerned only with praise of learning performance here. The observer should code only once for each expresssion of praise, whether a few words or more extended.
- A reward, such as points or a token or gold stars, is given since the reward implies praise but only when specific reasons for praise are expressed. This assumes that the students understand the reward system and value the reward.
- The teacher provides the correct answers if the student's answer is insufficient or incomplete.
- The teacher informs the student who has responded to a question, or performed in some way, or who is working at his/her desk, that his/her response or work is or is not acceptable. A mark is coded even if the feedback informs the child that his/her answer is wrong or his/her performance is inadequate.
- The teacher may involve other students in providing affirmation or correction so long as it is not done in a manner which humiliates or embarrasses a student.
- Feedback may be coded as encouraging even though it is cursory or perfunctory: "Yes," "Uhum," "Good," "OK," "Wrong," "No," or repetition of the student's answer while nonverbally communicating approval such as nodding of the head.
- Redundant feedback should be coded only once. Redundant feedback occurs when the teacher uses several expressions to convey affirmation of one student response.

Worksheet 15 (continued)

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher criticizes the student's performance in a sarcastic or demeaning manner.
- The teacher gives obvious nonverbal indications of disapproval, e.g., looking disgusted or extremely frustrated and annoyed after a student responds.
- The teacher does not react or comment after a student has responded to a question, read aloud, recited, or performed in some way usually at the teacher's request.
- The student is not informed as to the acceptability of his/her performance by any verbal or nonverbal communication from the teacher.
- The teacher repeats the question in a quizzical manner without indicating then or later whether the student's response was right or wrong.
- A teacher belittles a student's response by using sarcasm or embarassing criticism.
- Feedback should be coded as discouraging if stated while nonverbally commmunicating disapproval such as shaking the head.
- The teacher says "OK" or nods his/her head when the student gives an incorrect or incomplete answer.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The teacher compliments a student regarding posture, neatness, wearing apparel, etc., unrelated to learning performance.
- The teacher criticizes the student's social interactions ("Another fight, Billy?") or personal attributes ("Couldn't you try to be neater?").
- There was an opportunity to give reasons for praise and the teacher failed to do so.
- The teacher ignores an unsolicited or called-out response of a student.

IV. Listening

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher maintains eye contact with the student or indicates to the student that the response was heard, e.g., the teacher writes the response on the board while his/her back is turned toward the student.
- A mark is coded for each interchange if it is evident that the teacher listened, even though the student's response is as brief as a few words. The student may be

responding to a question, reading aloud, talking privately to the teacher, or in some other way verbally communicating with the teacher.

- The teacher's attention is unavoidably distracted; the teacher may ask the student to pause or in some way indicate that he/she realizes the student is being interrupted. The teacher might say "Excuse me" or simply place his/her hand on the student's arm to maintain contact with the student while handling the intervening matter. In this case, the observer should code an encouraging behavior when the teacher begins to listen to the student. Nothing is coded for the interruption since the teacher handled it courteously.
- If the teacher is listening to the student, a tally is marked in the encouraging column. If the teacher is interrupted and handles it in a courteous fashion, getting back to the student as soon as possible, then the teacher retains the encouraging tally. However, if the teacher fails to get back to the student, the encouraging tally is erased and a discouraging tally is marked.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher is inattentive to a student whose verbal communication has been invited or permitted.
- The teacher appears to be disinterested or preoccupied. He/She probably does not maintain eye contact.
- The teacher interrupts a student to handle another situation which does not need immediate attention or fails to return to a student after a legitimate interruption. (See third bullet above.)
- The teacher gives the appearance of listening, but a discouraging should be coded if the teacher's reaction reveals he/she did not hear what was said.
- The observer is uncertain whether or not the teacher was listening. The student is probably uncertain also.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The teacher reacts to a student's nonverbal response.
- The teacher waits in a readiness pose, but the student says nothing. Listening can only be coded when the student makes a response.
- The teacher responds to student talk that was not addressed to her or to the teacher and group. For example, nothing would be coded for "Billy and Jane, I can hear you talking."

Worksheet 16 PEER OBSERVATION FORM: TEACHING VARIABLES

DATE OF OBSERVATION STUDENT'S NAME STUDENT'S RACE/ETHNIC GROUP	GROUPING AND INDIVIDUAL ASSISTANCE				INSTRUCTIONAL TIME				PRAISE, AFFIRMATION, CORRECTION, CRITICISM				LISTENING			
	D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**	
LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
WHITE LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
BLACK/HISPANIC LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
WHITE HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
BLACK/HISPANIC HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																

*D - DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

**E - ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

TRAINING EVALUATION: Units VII and VIII — Teaching Variables

1. What did you like best about Units VII-VIII?

2. What did you like least about Units VII-VIII?

3. How have you been providing some students with additional individual assistance?

4. List ways in which you have attempted to vary your teaching style.

5. Can you name one classroom behavior that you are doing differently as a result of Units VII-VIII?

UNIT IX: IDENTIFYING BEHAVIORS THAT ENCOURAGE STUDENT PARTICIPATION

RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES

Unit IX Instructions 1 1/2 hrs + one week between units

Objectives

- o To identify specific encouraging and discouraging teacher behaviors for the **response opportunity variables**
- o To practice behaviors that encourage student participation

Activities

1) Review definitions: see Transparency iv, Unit V, p. 97 (10 minutes).

2) Discuss peer evaluation of teaching variables: Worksheets 14 and 16, Unit VIII, pp. 181-183, 189 (10 minutes).

3) Explore specific categories of response opportunity variables (10 minutes).

In the large group ask participants to identify one encouraging and one discouraging behavior for the examples listed in the center column of Transparency vii, "Response Opportunity Variables in the Classroom."

4) Mini-lecture/Discussion I: Reviewing the Research on Response Opportunity Variables (20 minutes).

5) Identify discouraging and encouraging behaviors for response opportunity variables: Worksheets 17A and 17B

Directions: Break the large group into several smaller groups of five-seven persons. Ask each small group to appoint a facilitator and a recorder. Have each group follow the directions on Worksheet 17A. Have each small group report back to the large group. Hand out Worksheet 17B. Compare answers developed by the group with the answers provided on the sheet. Make additions to reflect the contributions of the small groups. Distribute the Response Opportunity Self-Evaluation sheet (30 minutes).

6) Self-evaluation for Response Opportunity Variables: Worksheet 18 and Participant Information Sheet IV (10 minutes).

As indicated in earlier units, black students have disproportionately been perceived as low achievers. Teachers can use this self-evaluation as an opportunity to examine their attitudes towards black students.

The response opportunity self-evaluation form outlines specific behaviors that encourage student participation. These include:

- calling on students
- wait time
- delving
- higher level questions

Self-evaluation can be used to arouse participants' awareness of their behavior patterns with targeted students. Before class the teacher selects a student to focus on. During class the teacher notes his or her behavior with the selected student. After class the teacher circles the number on the scale for each item which he/she believes characterizes his/her behavior with the student. A score of three or four indicates a basically encouraging behavior pattern.

Self-evaluation can be used as a guide for improving interaction skills. Teachers should be asked to use the self-evaluation sheet during a one-week period with four students: two low achievers and two high achievers. Teachers should practice encouraging behaviors with those students and in those areas needing improvement.

To review:

A) The facilitator should:

- Provide teachers with individual self-evaluation sheets for response opportunity variables.
- Encourage teachers to examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students.
- Ask teachers to identify two high achieving students and two low achieving students.
- Allow one week for teachers to complete self-evaluation forms and to practice encouraging interactions.

B) Teachers are asked to:

- Review the self-evaluation sheet prior to class and identify one high achieving student for the first self-evaluation.
- After class fill in the self-evaluation form for the first identified high achieving student.
- Repeat the process for the second high achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
- Identify one low achieving student before class.
- After class, fill in the self-evaluation form for the identified low achieving student.

    - Repeat the process for the second low achieving student during a different class or on a different day.
    - Review and compare results of the self-evaluations.
    - Identify high and low scoring variables.
    - Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students on those variables that you rated 0, 1, or 2.

7) Prepare a five-minute lesson to practice the response opportunity variables.

Materials

1) Transparency iv: Definitions (Unit V, p. 97)

2) Worksheet 14: Guidelines for Peer Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting (Unit VIII, pp. 181-183)
Worksheet 16: Peer Evaluation of Teaching Variables (Unit VIII, p. 189)

3) Transparency vii: Response Opportunity Variables in the Classroom

4) Mini-lecture/Discussion I: Response Opportunity Variables

5) Worksheet 17A: Response Opportunity Variables in the Classroom
Worksheet 17B: Examples of Response Opportunity Variables in the Classroom

6) Worksheet 18: Self-Evaluation Form for Response Opportunity Variables (four copies for each teacher participating in the training)
Participant Information Sheet IV: Questioning Techniques

Transparency vii

RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH INFLUENCE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

DISCOURAGING	ENCOURAGING

I. CALLING ON STUDENTS

II. WAIT TIME

III. DELVING

IV. HIGHER LEVEL QUESTIONS

MINI-LECTURE/DISCUSSION I:

Response Opportunity Variables

There are many aspects of the classroom which together comprise response opportunity. A review of the research findings on a few dimensions of student response opportunities follows.

I. Calling on Students

Research indicates that most teachers call on students perceived as high achievers to recite or perform more frequently than they call on students perceived as low achievers (Good and Brophy, 1971a; Horn, 1914; Rist, 1970; Rubovits and Maehr, 1973). Minority students are more likely to be perceived as low achievers regardless of their performance (Crowl, 1971; Woodworth and Salzer, 1971). Teachers do not wish to embarrass a student who they suspect does not know the answer. Teachers want the class to hear the correct or most thoughtful response and high quality student performance rewards the teacher's efforts. Rubovits and Maehr (1973) found that teachers gave preferential treatment to "gifted" students, however, with blacks treated less positively than whites. Unfortunately, the students who are considered low achievers soon realize that they are less apt to be called on; therefore, they are likely to feel less involved in the class and may pay less attention to the teacher.

II. Wait Time

Several studies have shown that if the teacher increases his/her wait time (time between the last word of a question being asked and the beginning of a student response), both the quantity and and quality of responses improve. Research indicates that teachers tend to allow high achievers more time to answer a question than they allow low achievers (Swift et al., 1984; Flanders, 1964; Rowe 1969, 1972 and 1974; Gooding et al., 1984). If a high achiever hesitates, the teacher waits for him/her to think through an answer; the teacher feels confident that a response is being formulated and that it will be a worthwhile response. When a low achiever hesitates, the teacher may anticipate no answer or an inadequate answer. Not wishing to embarrass the student or to waste time, the teacher terminates the response opportunity, usually referring the question to another student or supplying the answer. Several authors have presented staff development models designed to assist teachers to increase wait time (Munroe, 1982a; Munroe, 1982b; Murphy et al., 1982; Gooding et al., 1984; Gambrell, 1980).

III. Delving

Teachers question students perceived as low achievers less frequently than students perceived as high achievers. When low achievers are questioned, they are frequently given the easiest question and are often "let off the hook" if they look hesitant or bewildered. Teachers are less apt to provide clues or to delve for the answers with low achievers because the teacher suspects delving will be fruitless or fears the child will be embarrassed (Good and Brophy, 1971a). Consequently, the teacher's questioning techniques may be less encouraging and less helpful to low achievers than to high achievers. It is important to:

- direct questions to specific students rather than to those who volunteer
- increase wait time for all students to about five - seven seconds
- rephrase or probe when an incorrect or incomplete answer is given

IV. Higher Level Questions

In their survey of 163 experienced teachers, Good and Dembo (1973) found that all but 7 percent of the teachers called on low achievers only when they thought they were likely to know the answer. This probably means that low achievers are usually given questions which require nothing more complex than recall. Consequently, students who are viewed as low achievers are given fewer opportunities to practice higher level thinking. Higher level questions are directed to students from whom a model answer is anticipated; that is, an answer from which the rest of the class can profit. This fails to provide low achieving students with practice in developing their own responses to higher-order questions. To the extent that low achieving students are limited to easy questions, a ceiling is placed on their learning. It is important to address different levels and types of questions to all students regardless of perceived academic competency (see Participant Information Sheet IV for additional information on questioning techniques).

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Participant Information Sheet IV

QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES*

1. Plan key questions to provide lesson structure and direction. Write them into lesson plans, at least one for each objective--especially higher-order questions. Ask spontaneous questions based on student responses.

2. Phrase questions clearly and specifically. Avoid vague or ambiguous questions such as "What did we learn yesterday?" or "What about the heroine of the story?" Ask single questions; avoid run-on questions that lead to student frustration and confusion. Clarity increases the probability of accurate responses.

3. Ask questions logically and sequentially. Avoid random questions lacking clear focus and intent. Consider students' prior understanding of content, topic, and lesson objective(s). Asking questions in a planned sequence will enhance student thinking and learning.

4. Ask questions at a variety of levels. Use knowledge-level questions to determine basic understandings and to serve as a basis for higher-level thinking. Higher-level questions provide students opportunities to practice higher forms of thought.

5. Follow up student responses. Develop a response repertoire that encourages students to clarify initial responses, lift thought to higher levels, and support a point of view or opinion. For example, "Can you restate that?" "Could you clarify that further?" "What are some alternatives?" "How can you defend your position?" Encourage students to clarify, expand, or support initial responses to higher-level questions.

6. Give students time to think when responding. Increase wait time after asking a question to five to seven seconds to increase number and length of student responses and to encourage higher-level thinking. Insisting upon instantaneous responses significantly decreases the probability of meaningful interaction with and among students. Allow sufficient wait time before repeating or rephrasing questions to ensure student understanding.

7. Use questions that encourage wide student participation. Distribute questions to involve all students in learning activities. For example, call on nonvolunteers. Be alert for reticent students' verbal and nonverbal cues such as a perplexed look or a partially raised hand. Encourage student-to-student interaction. Use circular or semicircular seating to create an environment conducive to increased student involvement.

8. Encourage student questions. This encourages active participation. Student questions at higher cognitive levels stimulate higher levels of thought, essential for the inquiry approach. Give students opportunities to formulate questions and carry out follow-up investigations of interest. Facilitate group and independent inquiry with a supportive social-emotional climate, using praise and encouragement, accepting and applying student ideas, responding to student feelings, and actively promoting student involvement in all phases of learning.

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*Adapted from Questioning Skills, for Teachers by William W. Wilen, 2nd edition, Washington, D.C.: NEA Professional Library, 1986, p. 10.

Worksheet 17A

RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH INFLUENCE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

For each category below, list three examples of encouraging and discouraging teacher behaviors that demonstrate positive and negative expectations, respectively, in classroom interactions.

Categories

Discouraging	**Encouraging**

I. Calling On Student

Example

Discouraging	Encouraging
Fails to call on student	Calls on student
1.	
2.	
3.	

II. Wait Time

Discouraging	Encouraging
1.	
2.	
3.	

Worksheet 17A (continued)

III. Delving

1.

2.

3.

IV. Higher Level Questions

Example

Suggests that the students may have difficulty answering a higher order question	Uses all levels of questioning for all students

1.

2.

3.

Worksheet 17B

EXAMPLES OF RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER BEHAVIORS WHICH INFLUENCE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE LEARNING PROCESS

Discouraging	**Encouraging**
I. Calling On Student	
Fails to call on student when the student indicates a desire to respond	Calls on all students -- those who raise their hands and those who don't.
Scolds student for calling out	Courteously redirects student to raise his/her hands to contribute to class discussion.
II. Wait Time	
Terminates response opportunity if response is not immediate	Allows five to seven seconds for student to respond to questions
III. Delving	
Does not continue to interact with student if student responds inaccurately	Continues to interact with student after student has failed to respond or responded inaccurately
Fails to give student any additional information or does not encourage student to rethink the question	Provides further information or rewords the question to assist the student to look at the question in a different way
Does not delve after unsatisfactory response	Follows up with student -- delves, rephrases, gives clues to help student respond
IV. Higher Level Questions	
Suggests that the students may have difficulty answering a higher order question	Uses all levels of questioning for all students
Asks only simple, lower order questions	Calls for student opinion, explanation and evaluation from all students

Worksheet 18

SELF-EVALUATION FORM
HOW I INTERACT WITH A STUDENT: RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES

Student's Name ___________________

Instructions

Identify two low and two high achieving students. Complete a separate form for each of the four identified students during a one-week period.

During one class, note your behavior with the student whose name you have placed above. After class circle the number on the scale for each item which you believe characterizes your behavior with the student. A score of 3 or 4 indicates basically encouraging behavior while a score of 1 or 0 indicates a basically discouraging behavior pattern. At the end of one week compare student scores. Compare the scores to see if there is a pattern of difference between your behavior toward high achieving students and low achieving students. Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in those areas needing improvement.

	Discouraging Interactions		Encouraging Interactions
1.	I do not call on this student.	0 1 2 3 4	I call on this student.
2.	I terminate the response opportunity if response is not immediate	0 1 2 3 4	I allow five-seven seconds for students to respond to questions.
3.	If the student response is unsatisfactory, I do not delve, rephrase or provide clues to the student.	0 1 2 3 4	If the response to my question is not completely satisfactory, I delve, rephrase and give clues to the student.
4.	I do not ask the student higher level questions.	0 1 2 3 4	I ask the student higher level questions.
5.	I scold a student for calling out.	0 1 2 3 4	I remind a student to raise his/her hand to contribute to the discussion.
6.	I introduce a question with some comment indicating that the student may have difficulty with this type of question.	0 1 2 3 4	I expect all students to be able to answer all types of questions.

UNIT X: PROVIDING RESPONSE OPPORTUNITIES TO SELECTED STUDENTS

Unit X Instructions 2 hrs

Objective

- To practice behaviors that encourage student response

Activities

1) Review assignment of Self-Evaluation for Response Opportunity Variables and discuss outcomes of the intervention. Were there any differences in your behavior toward high and low achieving students; black, Hispanic and white students? Discuss your successes and/or problems in practicing encouraging behaviors; Worksheet 18, Unit IX, p. 211) (20 minutes).

2) Review Worksheet 19 (the first part, "The Peer Observation Process") and Worksheet 20: Instructions for Coding Response Opportunity Variables (30 minutes).

3) Coding Response Opportunity Variables: The facilitator teaches a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (participants in the workshop, four labeled high achievers and four labeled low achievers). The rest of the participants practice coding the facilitator's teaching on response opportunity variables; Worksheets 20 and 21 (presentation and discussion -- 40 minutes).

4) Coding Response Opportunity Variables: Choose two volunteers to present a five-minute lesson to eight "students" (four participants labeled low achievers and four participants labeled high achievers). Have remaining participants code on response opportunity variables and discuss the results; Worksheets 20 and 21 (20 minutes).

5) Initiate and schedule a peer-observation process to review behavior on response opportunity variables: Worksheet 21 (10 minutes).

   The procedure includes pre-observation directions listed below, the peer observation process outlined on p. 215, and the post-observation meeting outlined on p. 216.

   - Review Guidelines for Peer Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting, Instructions for Coding Response Opportunity Variables and Peer Observation Form: Response Opportunity Variables; Worksheets 19, 20 and 21.
   - Establish teacher-peer teams. (Allow teachers to select their own partners.)
   - Allow four weeks for teacher-peer teams to observe each other.
   - Each teacher should be observed four times in the four-week period.

- The teacher who is being observed decides which eight students (four high-achieving and four low-achieving students) are to be targeted for observations. We reiterate the importance of having teaching examine their perceptions, expectations and behavior toward black students. We strongly recommend that teachers choose the same eight students for all peer observation throughout this manual.
- Schedule a bi-weekly post-observation conference every other week for observer and observed to analyze results of observations.
    - Compare the encouraging and discouraging scores of high and low achievers to see of there is a pattern of higher scores for high achievers.
    - Note than an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.
- Practice encouraging interactions with low achieving students in areas of identified need.

6) Schedule a monthly meeting with small groups of peer observation teams.

- Establish a schedule for you, the supervisor, to meet with small groups of peer observation teams to discuss progress and problems in addressing response opportunity variables with identified students.
- Ask teachers to keep you informed about the low achieving students they have identified and the progress that has been made.

7) Evaluation of Training for Units IX-X. Have the participants evaluate the training thus far.

Materials

1) Worksheet 18: Self-Evaluation for Response Opportunity Variables (Unit IX, p. 211)

2) Worksheet 19: Guidelines for Peer Observation and Suggestions for Post-Observation Meeting

3) Worksheet 20: Instructions for Coding Response Opportunity Variables
Worksheet 21: Peer Observation Forms for Response Opportunity Variables

4) Mini-lecture/Discussion G: Guidelines for Monthly Debriefing Conference (See Unit VI, p. 133)

5) Training Evaluation: Units IX-X -- Response Opportunity Variables

Worksheet 19

GUIDELINES FOR PEER OBSERVATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR POST-OBSERVATION MEETING

The Peer Observation Process

1. Use one observation sheet for each observation. The observation should last a minimum of one-half hour.

2. Observe teacher student interactions with four low achieving students and four high achieving students selected by the teacher being observed and named on the left hand side of the sheet.

3. Selected students should be identified by a seating chart provided to the observer before the observation begins. A lesson outline should also be provided.

Tallying

4. When observing the variables outlined on the top of each of your observation sheets, put a small vertical mark in the encouraging side of each identified variable when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly encouraging and a small vertical mark in the discouraging box when you determine that the teacher's interaction with a named student is distinctly discouraging. For example, on the climate sheet (looking at the category of physical closeness), if the teacher moves within an arm's length of the student, make a tally mark in the encouraging box; if the teacher removes the student from class interaction, record a tally mark in the discouraging box. See Instructions for Coding Response Opportunity Variables, Worksheet 20.

5. Total the tally marks in each column and figure the percentage of tallies for perceived high achieving students and perceived low achieving students white students and black/Hispanic students for each variable. Calculate the percentages as follows:
   - % encouraging perceived low achievers (For example, eight tallies in the column out of 32 tallies total in that category = 25%.)
   - % discouraging perceived low achievers
   - % encouraging perceived high achievers
   - % discouraging perceived high achievers
   - % encouraging white students
   - % discouraging white students
   - % encouraging black/Hispanic students
   - % discouraging black/Hispanic students

6. For each variable, compare the total number of encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted low achieving students with encouraging behaviors demonstrated to targeted high achieving students. Make similar comparisons regarding the discouraging behaviors for each variable as well as similar comparisons between students based on their racial or ethnic group. Note that an absence of any score may be as significant as an abundance of discouraging scores.

The Post-Observation Meeting

7. Discuss the following questions during the post-observation meeting:

How many black and Hispanic students were chosen as high achievers?

How many black and Hispanic stuents were chosen as low achievers?

What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived low-achieving students for your totals in calling on students, wait time, delving and high level questions?

What behaviors communicate these messages for perceived low-achieving students for each of your totals?

What kinds of messages are being communicated to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

What behaviors communicate these messages to perceived high-achieving students for each of your totals?

Examine your race/ethnic group totals. Were there any differences in behavior demonstrated toward black and Hispanic students vs. white students?

What kinds of behavior changes are appropriate for you to make for each variable?

Worksheet 20

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CODING RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES

I. Calling on Students

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher calls on a targeted student for a short or extended time, allowing a student to respond to a question, recite, read aloud, express an opinion or give a report.
- The teacher calls on a targeted student by calling his/her name or signaling to him/her nonverbally.
- A targeted student calls out a response; a mark is coded only if the teacher courteously reminds the student of the proper hand-raising procedure for answering a question.
- The student does not respond when called on or responds incorrectly or says that he/she has no response; an encouraging mark is nevertheless coded.
- Sometimes it is difficult to determine whether a series of questions directed toward one student should be marked as one or several encouraging codes. If the questions are all directed toward getting one particular response, one mark should be coded. If the teacher obtains an acceptable response and then asks a different question to which a different response is expected, a second encouraging mark is coded.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher overtly or covertly prohibits targeted students from responding or performing.
- The student indicates that he/she wishes to respond, and should be given the opportunity.
- The targeted student is individually scolded for calling out an answer. "Scolded" implies rebuking a student in a sarcastic, demeaning, or ridiculing manner.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The teacher calls on a student as a control technique (i.e., to get his/her attention). The teacher does not expect the child to respond and usually the child is aware that a response is not expected.

II. Wait time

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher allows five seconds or more; it is coded as encouraging whether or not the student answers.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher allows the targeted student less than five seconds to respond, either giving the answer, going on to another student or making a comment indicating that the student's time is up.

NOTHING IS CODED IF. . .

- The targeted student terminates the response opportunity by answering immediately or stating that he/she cannot answer.

III. Delving

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher provides additional information verbally or non-verbally to help the targeted student. If the student has answered the question incompletely, incorrectly, or may not have responded at all, the teacher rephrases the question, provides clues, provides additional information, explains a word in the question, or asks a different but related question.

- Delving is coded only once for each recitation turn the student has. If the targeted student does not respond or responds inadequately, all delving done by the teacher to obtain or improve that response is coded as one.

- Delving will be coded even though it does not produce the desired response from the student.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher terminates the response opportunity of a targeted student whose answer was inadequate without rephrasing the question, providing additional information, or delving in some way.

NOTHING IS CODED IF . . .

- The teacher just repeats the original question.

IV. Questioning

A MARK IS CODED FOR ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN. . .

- The teacher asks the student a question which requires him/her to do something more than merely remember the answer from reading, previous instruction, or another source.

- The teacher uses a variety of questions, so students. . .

1. Give opinions
2. Assess facts
3. Evaluate information or ideas
4. Discover connections between facts
5. Explain phenomena
6. Apply previously learned information to a new situation
7. Organize information
8. Hypothesize why or how something occurred
9. Interpret information
10. Explain non-literal information (eg.,symbolism, irony)
11. Summarize communications
12. Draw implications
13. Predict trends or effects
14. Recognize unstated assumptions
15. Distinguish facts from hypotheses
16. Recognize inconsistencies
17. Put elements together to form a whole
18. Explain logically how to do something
19. Generalize

This list is far from exhaustive.

A MARK IS CODED FOR DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR WHEN . . .

- The teacher implies or states that questions are either easy or too difficult. What we are attempting to avoid here is the possibility that "easy" questions will be unconsciously directed more frequently to perceived lows.

Worksheet 21 PEER OBSERVATION FORM: RESPONSE OPPORTUNITY VARIABLES

DATE OF OBSERVATION			CALLING ON STUDENTS				WAIT TIME				DELVING				HIGHER LEVEL QUESTIONS			
	STUDENT'S NAME	STUDENT'S RACE/ETHNIC GROUP	D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**		D*		E**	
LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																		
		TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
		LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
		WHITE LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
		BLACK/HISPANIC LOW ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																		
		TOTAL/PERCENT	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
		HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
		WHITE HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																
		BLACK/HISPANIC HIGH ACHIEVING STUDENTS																

*D - DISCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

**E - ENCOURAGING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

TRAINING EVALUATION: Units IX and X -- Response Opportunity Variables

1. What did you like best about Units IX-X?

2. What did you like least about Units IX-X?

3. Has increasing wait time or providing additional delving made any difference in student response? If yes, discuss the differences.

4. Discuss your experiences when asking all students higher order questions.

5. Can you name two ways your teaching techniques have changed as a result of Units IX-X?

UNIT XI: SUMMARY AND FOLLOW-UP

Unit XI Instructions

Objective

- To encourage participants to continue to monitor their behavior with students labeled low achievers and students labeled high achievers

Activities

1) Meet monthly with peer observation team groups to discuss:

   -- Problems with low achieving students
   -- Examples of catching yourself at communicating low expectations
   -- Examples of your behavior that is building student self-confidence
   -- Examples of how your behavior has changed and continues to evolve as a result of the training
   -- Changing performance of students

2) Review and discuss student performance before teacher training, at completion of training, and at the close of the school year.

3) Show films and videotapes that help to keep the issue of teacher expectations a priority.

   Recommended: Cipher in the Snow (25 minutes)
   Pygmalion Effect: Self-fulfilling Prophecy (30 minutes)

4) Every six months, time should be set aside for self-evaluation and peer observation and results should be brought back to a meeting of the peer observation teams.

5) Have participants evaluate the training program.

Materials

1) None

2) Teacher Data Form and Student Data Form (See Unit VI, pp. 123,125)

3) Rental:

Cipher in the Snow	Pygmalion Effect: Self-Fulfilling Prophecy
Brigham Young University Provo, Utah (801) 378-2713	Montgomery County Public Schools Staff Development Office Rockville, Maryland (301) 279-3451/2

4) Self-Evaluation and Peer Observation Forms

5) Post-Training Questionnaire

POST-TRAINING QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Student/teacher interaction categories are listed below. Please mark them as follows:

3 Most important to student achievement
2 Important
1 Least important

_____ Physical Closeness
_____ Courtesy
_____ Personal Interest and Compliments
_____ Accepting Feelings
_____ Multicultural Environment
_____ Teaching/Learning Styles
_____ Grouping and Individual Assistance

_____ Instructional Time
_____ Praise, Affirmation, Correction or Criticism
_____ Listening
_____ Monitoring Student Progress
_____ Calling On Students
_____ Wait Time
_____ Delving
_____ Higher Level Questions

2. What are the three most helpful things you learned about yourself as a result of this program?

(1)

(2)

(3)

3. What are the three most helpful things you learned about your students as a result of this program?

(1)

(2)

(3)

4. Would you recommend that your colleagues participate in this program?

Strongly Recommend 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Discourage

5. Please share any other comments you have about this program which may be useful in evaluation and planning for the future.

CONCLUSION

This training manual has presented you with a considerable amount of information about the relationship between the educational environment and black student underachievement. What we are seeing, unfortunately, is that for a variety of reasons, black students are likely to be labeled low achievers. Once labeled, a negative academic identity begins to emerge and without special intervention on the part of teachers, it is that negative academic identity that is continually reinforced.

Again and again, research indicates that teachers can be the critical factor in increasing minority student achievement. The materials presented in this manual were designed to assist teachers in establishing positive student-teacher relationships and to create a challenging and friendly classroom climate. Through your participation in the exercises presented, you have had the opportunity to understand and practice teaching behaviors and techniques that according to the research literature have a positive effect on minority student achievement. It is our hope that the understandings and skills you have gained during this training will assist you in your efforts to become a more effective teacher with all students but especially with your underachieving minority students.

Good luck!

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